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Governor Hughes a Presidential Candidate

In response to a letter from the Republican Club of New York City, Governor Hughes has expressed his willingness to be regarded as a candidate for the Presidential nomination by the Republican party. "I do not seek office," he says, "nor shall I attempt to influence the selection or vote of any delegate. The State administration must continue to be impartial, and must not be tributary to any candidacy." But he recognizes the honor which the nomination would confer and the obligation of service which it would impose, and leaves the matter for the party to decide, adding, "Whatever its decision, I shall be content." Mr. Hughes's administration of the office of Governor has been admirable, and The Outlook has little doubt that if his future record fulfills the promise of the past he would be triumphantly re-elected as Governor if he would accept the office. His advocacy of the Public Service Commission shows him to be a warm advocate of government regulation of public utilities; his veto of the two-cent fare bill shows that he believes that this regulation should be furnished by a small body which can act on adequate knowledge, not by drastic legislative measures passed under the impulse of popular feeling; his administration has shown the possession of high ideals combined with practical business efficiency; that he has shown less skill as a political manager than Mr. Roosevelt will be regarded by some as a compliment, by others as the reverse. He has been rather an Independent than a Republican, and was elected, as our readers will recall, in a campaign in which all the other nominees of the Republican party were defeated. Confining himself strictly to State administration, he has had no occasion to declare himself on National issues, and his opinions are, at this writing, quite unknown respecting such questions as forestry, irrigation, development of Western waterways, the reservation of mining lands, revision of the tariff, the authority of the Federal Government over railways and trusts, the development or diminution of the navy, the colonial policy, and in general all those questions respecting the authority and powers of the Federal Government involved in what The Outlook has called the New Federalism. He has, however, promised to speak to the Republican Club of New York City, and his friends expect that he will on that occasion declare his views on National issues. The Outlook reserves any attempt to interpret his candidacy until those views are before it.

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Mr. Taft's Letter

Mr. Taft has followed Mr. Hughes's letter with one practically addressed to the Republicans of New York State in which he declines to enter into a contest with Mr. Hughes for the vote of that State in the Convention. I do not ask, he says in effect, the Republicans of New York to withdraw their preference from that favorite son in order that it may be bestowed upon me. The party interest is above my interest, and I ask nothing that would engender factional passion and imperil victory in New York. Partisan critics endeavor in vain to belittle this letter by calling it a "clever move." It is the cleverness of a large nature which is ambitious only to serve and which desires not a personal triumph but a triumph in the country of certain definite principles and policies. The New York Evening Post, which is a strong supporter of Mr. Hughes's candidacy, gives to this letter the interpretation which men of all parties throughout the country will give, in saying of it: "We are of the opinion

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that the Secretary would have taken the stand he did even if it were not a shrewd political move. It is in keeping with the popular conception of him as a straightforward and outspoken man, with no other desire than to play the game in an open and aboveboard manner." These two letters from the two most prominent candidates for the Presidency will, we believe, have the effect of putting the usual ante-convention contest upon a high plane.

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The Brownson Incident

The protest which Admiral Brownson presented against the policy of putting the hospital ships of the navy in charge of a medical officer has now been made public, and with this publication the New York Sun's Washington correspondent gives what bears internal evidence of being the version of the entire incident as it is regarded by Admiral Brownson's friends. According to this correspondent, a joint medical board consisting of army and navy surgeons, convened by the President to consider this among other questions, in a report issued February 17, 1906, recommended that a hospital ship should be commanded by a medical officer. This report was approved by the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery and disapproved by the Bureau of Navigation. The whole question was then taken up by the Secretary of the Navy and the President, and after due consideration the policy of putting the ship under the command of a surgeon but its navigation under a sailing-master was formally adopted in December, 1906. This action, the reader will remember, was that of the Commander-in-Chief of the Navy. To quote the language of the Sun's correspondent, "the question of placing the hospital ship in service was then dropped until November 1, 1907." The Relief was then about to be put in commission to accompany the fleet on its trip to the Pacific, but instead of complying with the order of the Commander-in-Chief made the year previous, and putting the ship under the charge of a medical officer, Admiral Brownson attempted to raise the whole question again in a memorandum in which he approved commissioning the Relief, but protested against putting the vessel in the charge of a medical officer, and denied that the President had legal authority to do so. His request to have the President's order reversed being refused, he resigned. If the Sun's correspondent correctly reports the facts, Admiral Brownson's action appears to The Outlook unjustifiable. For efficiency in any organization it must be possible to reach a *final* decision. The order of the Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy is such a final decision in any military organization. It would be wholly destructive of military efficiency to allow a subordinate to question either the wisdom or the legality of his superior officer's orders. The time to request a rehearing of the question was when the President's decision was announced, not when the time came to put it in force. Whether the President's order was wise, whether it was legal, is not the ultimate question in this case. The question which Admiral Brownson has raised is whether a naval officer is bound to render prompt obedience to the orders of his superior officer, and upon that question The Outlook cannot think that there is room for two opinions. But we still think that the President should either have quietly accepted Admiral Brownson's resignation without public comment, or, if he wished to administer a public rebuke, should have first given to the Admiral an opportunity to be heard in his own defense.

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Emergency Currency

Public opinion is at last taking definite and intelligent form with regard to the necessity of an emergency currency and the legislative method by which such currency may wisely be provided for the country. Since the days of Secretary Windom, who directed the Treasury Department under President Garfield more than a quarter of a century ago, financial students and experts have continuously pointed out the need of a universal banking currency, the volume of which shall fluctuate with the legitimate fluctuations of trade. But the great public, from which all legislation springs in the last analysis, has only

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slowly and by painful experience been convinced of the practical and necessary uses of an elastic currency. During the last year The Outlook has many times stated the principles upon which a completely effective and absolutely safe currency system must rest, and we think our readers are familiar with those principles. How to enact them into law is still another question. Out of a multitude of proposals, three plans may be selected as being not only the most prominent but also the most promising crystallizations of the financial and public opinion of the country. One or other of these three will undoubtedly form the basis of whatever currency legislation Congress may enact at the present session. They are, in the order in which they have been presented to the country, first, the American Bankers' plan; second, the Aldrich plan; third, the Gage plan. The American Bankers' Association advocates an extension of our present bond-secured circulation. This plan was explained at length in The Outlook of December 1, 1906. Senator Aldrich recommends the issuance of United States notes, in times of emergency, to National banks, which as borrowers shall pledge as collateral what may be called approved savings banks securities—that is to say, satisfactory stocks and bonds other than United States bonds. Mr. Gage, who has not only had large experience as a Government financier, for he was Secretary of the Treasury under President McKinley, but also large experience of the operation of the present National Bank Act, for he has been president and director of some of the foremost banking institutions both in the West and in the East, proposes that in times of emergency the National banks may borrow from the Government United States notes, but that the collateral shall be good commercial paper, although the banks may be permitted to secure not more than fifty per cent of their loan by satisfactory stocks and bonds. This plan may really be regarded as an amendment to Senator Aldrich's proposal. The American Bankers' Association at a recent meeting in Chicago condemned the Aldrich plan because they believe it would create an artificial market for stocks and bonds and give presumably special advantages to those banks which possess such securities. On the other hand, those who, like Mr. Gage, believe that an emergency currency should primarily be issued for the benefit of the farmer, the merchant, the manufacturer, who is conducting a "going business," criticise, properly it seems to us, the American Bankers' plan because it is based on a limited and non-fluctuating volume of United States bonds, which already, through the National Banking Act, possess an abnormally artificial market value. It appears to us that of these three plans Mr. Gage's, which we outlined at some length last week, is not only the most comprehensive in its application, but will be the simplest in its operation and the safest and most effective in its influence upon the industrial and financial welfare of the country.

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The Timber Land Frauds

As is well known, a large number of persons and corporations in the West have sought to enrich themselves by conspiring to obtain large tracts of public land much exceeding the quantity lawfully to be acquired from the Government for any person or persons. This practice has been particularly common in connection with timber lands. During the past few weeks general attention has been directed to Colorado because of the Government's indictment of a number of more or less prominent business men of that State on the charge of alleged timber-land transactions in violation of law, and because of the decisions now rendered by Judge Robert E. Lewis, of the United States District Court of Denver, in favor of the accused. The law in question is comprised in the famous, or rather infamous, Timber and Stone Act of 1878. As, in his recently published report to the Secretary of the Interior, Commissioner Ballinger, of the General Land Office, says, this Act has been the convenient vehicle by which the great bulk of the more valuable timber lands, not now in National forests, has gone into the hands of the large timber companies. The Act provides that stone or timber land from the public domain may be sold to American

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citizens, or to persons who have declared their intention to become such, "in quantity not exceeding 160 acres to any one person or persons, at the price of $2.50 an acre." Of course, then, it would be a fraud upon the Government for any person or association of persons, directly or indirectly, to obtain from the Government a greater quantity of land than that allowed by law. Before formal and approved entries are made, entitling private persons to future ownership of former public lands, preliminary application for entry must be filed. Prior to such preliminary application, the law prohibits conspiracy under heavy penalty and requires the entryman's oath that he is not acquiring the land for another. But the law, unfortunately, does not require a similar oath at the time of final entry, although the Land Office regulation does. The defendants were charged with having procured persons under hire, first to make entries, as individual entrymen, with the local land officers operating under the General Land Office in the Department of the Interior, for tracts respectively not exceeding the quantity allowed by law; second, to pay to the local officers, with moneys furnished by certain corporations, the price of the land as fixed by law; third, to secure title from the Government for the lands to themselves as entrymen; and, finally, to convey title of the lands to the corporations involved.

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Failure of the Prosecution

Judge Lewis quashed the indictment because, as he says, "it begins where the Timber and Stone Act leaves off." As the entrymen were not charged with being hired to make the preliminary applications for entry, "in the absence of any further prohibition how can we say that it is a criminal fraud for an intending qualified entryman, after his application, to contract to sell *in future* the lands he has made application for with an honest purpose to acquire?" In other words, under existing law, criminal action, punishable in a United States Court, is involved only if the preliminary application for entry is accompanied by a false oath. No criminal action is involved if the final entry be accompanied by a false oath, for an oath is not required by law, but only by the regulation of an executive department. The court has jurisdiction to make the law, not the regulation, binding. Hence, Judge Lewis's decision was to the effect that an indictment for perjury based upon a false final affidavit cannot be sustained. This view has now been supported by the Supreme Court's decision, just handed down, in the case of the United States vs. Williamson. These decisions strictly interpret a bad law. But there are other indictments in which even this loose law has been openly defied and clearly violated, and there will be no cessation, we are glad to learn, in their prosecution. But the Denver indictments also set forth overt acts in furtherance of the alleged conspiracy. It will be interesting to see whether the Supreme Court upholds Judge Lewis in his further point that a conspiracy is complete when the immediate overt act contemplated by it has been effected, and that subsequent acts in continuation of the end sought to be brought about by the conspiracy do not continue the life of the conspiracy! In other words, the object of the conspiracy, so far as it affected the Government in the Colorado matter, was completely consummated when, three years ago, the lands passed from the entryman to the corporation's agent, the subsequent transfer by the agent to the corporation being a mere detail. If the transfer of the lands from the agent to the corporation is not to be regarded as a part of the conspiracy, the criminal prosecution fails because of the operation of the statute of limitations. The Outlook is able to announce the emphatic dissent of the Department of Justice from this particular interpretation of the law by Judge Lewis. The Department will carry the case to the Supreme Court. If that Court sustains Judge Lewis's interpretation, the Department's course will be seriously interfered with in punishing by criminal proceedings those who have conspired to secure for corporations large amounts of land which, under the law, they are not entitled to hold, land which can doubtless be recovered to the Government through equity

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proceedings. Whatever view we take of Judge Lewis's judgment in this case, one thing is clear: the Timber and Stone Act ought to be radically amended. For thirty years its loosely framed text has been an invitation to fraud on the part of all who love irregular and deceitful methods of acquiring land wealth. It is a satisfaction to add that among those foremost in demanding its modification is the large body of honest lumbermen, who have too long suffered from unjust implications aroused by the deeds of the dishonest.

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The New York Water Board Vindicated

The Corporation Counsel, reaffirming his previous opinion, has told the Mayor of New York City that the action of the Water Board in giving the contract for the Ashokan Dam to a contractor who did not make the lowest bid was legal and proper. There being absolutely no further ground of complaint against the Water Board which can be described as other than frivolous, the charges against the Board are dismissed by the Mayor and the work will go on under its direction. This investigation undoubtedly has produced some serious disadvantages; it has caused considerable delay; it has temporarily chilled the enthusiasm of the splendid organization which the Board had created; and it may make good men more hesitant than they ever were before to accept appointment on such boards, since the most conscientious service cannot make one wholly immune from unreasonable attack and unjustifiable suspicion. But there have been some compensating advantages. The investigation, by subjecting newspaper charges to a careful scrutiny, has proved them groundless, and has given to the Board an intelligent public confidence which will increase its strength; it has shown the stuff the engineering force is made of, and will probably ultimately enhance its loyalty to the organization and its interest in the work; and it has brought to the attention of the public the greatness of the enterprise in which the city is engaged and the efficiency with which that work is being carried on. The Outlook congratulates the Board on its legally attested efficiency, the city on the possession of such a body as this investigation has shown to be engaged in its service, and Mayor McClellan on the proof he has afforded that in this work he has had a single eye to the best interests of the city, from which neither partisan pressure, supposed personal political interest, nor a factitious popular clamor has been able to divert him.

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The Unemployed

Some disagreeable after-effects of the recent financial disturbance are now forcing their presence on the attention of the people of the country. Surface indications of these effects are seen in the marches of the unemployed in Boston, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, and other cities, and their demands from the mayors of these cities that public work should be furnished for their relief. In Boston on Sunday of last week one of these bands, under the leadership of Morrison I. Swift (a well-known agitator who is a man of education and ability, but extreme in his radicalism and intemperate in his methods), entered Trinity Church and asked for the collection for the day. The rector, Dr. Mann, quietly declined to grant this request, as the collection was to go for foreign missions, but announced that on the following Sunday a special collection for the unemployed would be made. Later on Governor Guild, in replying to Swift's demand for public work, said that the labor conditions were better than the average for twenty years, that free employment bureaus were securing positions for from one to two thousand per month, and that Swift's preaching was anarchistic rather than socialistic. The estimates as to the number of homeless and unemployed in New York City vary from fifty thousand to a hundred thousand; anything like exact figures are unobtainable. The fact that the weather has not been rigorous for the season has been a favorable element, but it is feared that severe winter weather may precipitate a critical condition. New York City always supports during the winter a large number of homeless and unemployed, but at this time

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the number is exceptionally large, both of those now unemployed who are usually engaged in work and of the professional vagrants. The latter drift into New York from all over the country at the approach of winter, and remain there until the early months of spring call them back to their wandering life. All their usual haunts in the cheap lodging-houses along the Bowery are now filled and they are overflowing the Municipal Lodging-House. The unemployed have made unusual demands upon all charity organizations, and many of these are finding it extremely difficult to carry on their work. The number of applications far exceeds the opportunities for employment; and nearly every organization shows a marked decrease in the applications of employers for men, along with a marked increase in the applications from men for work. And an additional handicap has been placed upon many of these organizations in the fact that the financial stringency has had an effect upon reducing their incomes—some of these societies report as much of a decrease in contributions as seventy per cent. Conditions in New York City, we are informed by those who are carefully studying them, have reached a stage in their development when the family of the usually fairly well employed worker is being thrown into the group of those in want, and this results, in not a few cases, in the disruption of the family. But, as a whole, the type of man out of work and homeless in New York City, other than the professional vagrant, is the "marginal worker," who is the last employed and usually the first to be discharged. As long as present tendencies continue, the army of unemployed is being more and more added to by the worker whose employment over a period of years has enabled him to save up money for such a rainy day. Provident institutions and savings banks are being drawn upon by a comparatively large class of people, and, as such depositors' savings are gradually exhausted, a larger number is constantly drifting into the class of the unemployed and homeless in need of help. Thus the number of the actually destitute is sure to increase until permanent industrial improvement arrives.

A Pitiful Situation

The tendency of present conditions in New York City is a matter of grave concern. No work means to by far the larger number of those now idle no pay, and to the workman no pay means no food, no clothing, no shelter. No work means idleness, and idleness, if long continued among a laboring population, means crime and poverty, and all these in turn mean the crowding of almshouses and hospitals and penal institutions of various kinds. The pitiful side of the situation is simply told in a letter from one of the unemployed, evidently a man of education and intelligence, in the New York Evening Post. He says:

> We are not criminals, we are not vicious; many of us, doubtless, have not been so saving and thrifty as we might have been in times past, but the majority of us are willing to work, and *would* cheerfully and eagerly work if we knew where to find it.
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> We gladly avail ourselves of the shelter afforded by libraries, reading-rooms, missions, etc., but when these places close up at night, we are turned out into the streets to tramp, tramp up and down. There is nowhere else to go. Where do we sleep? We don't sleep, because, situated as we are, we are positively denied any opportunity to do so. If tired, overtaxed nature asserts herself and you nod over a book in a reading-room, you are quickly invited to take a walk, and if you don't go, the invitation is withdrawn and you are brutally ordered to go out; and, of course, if a poor devil falls asleep in a mission he is shaken and kept awake, willy-nilly.
>
> I myself have not been in a bed, or had any opportunity to sleep outside of one, for five days and nights, and have not had my shoes off during that time. Can you realize what it means to be deprived of sleep in this cruel manner? I am dazed and nearly crazy, and how it is all going to end, I find myself dully wondering.
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> I manage to get a morsel to eat, and so keep body and soul together, by becoming one of the units in the "Bread Line" at midnight, after standing therein two hours, patiently waiting all that time in order that one may not miss the dole, which a later comer might be unfortunate enough to do.

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A Great Citizen

Morris K. Jesup, who died at his home in New York City last week, was one of the large class of New Yorkers whom the country at large too often ignores in fixing its attention on the little group of speculators and gamblers with whom it

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identifies Wall Street, and, to a large extent, the metropolis. A man of great affairs, active in business for more than half a century, a man of large fortune, President of the Chamber of Commerce, apparently absorbed in great enterprises, Mr. Jesup was one of the foremost men of the country, if to forward great interests and nourish great altruistic enterprises determine a man's rank. The list of Mr. Jesup's gifts is far too long to be even summarized. He was one of the most loyal and generous supporters that the Young Men's Christian Association of New York City and the National organization has ever had; and the expansion of the work of the Association and of its influence in recent years has been due in no small measure to his generous leadership. He was one of the incorporators of the American Museum of Natural History in New York City; and although other men of great strength have been associated with him, the Museum is to-day the monument of his energy, intelligence, and fostering care. It is largely due to Mr. Jesup that the Museum has taken its place in the front rank of museums of its class, and that in more than one collection it holds a unique position. The most striking monument, however, of the public activity of this New York business man is to be found in Beirut, Syria. The Syrian Protestant College, of which the venerable Dr. Daniel Bliss was the first President, and his son, the Rev. Howard Sweetser Bliss, is the present President, must be ranked, by virtue of its equipment and work, among the important colleges of the world. No one who has visited the College at Beirut has failed to be impressed by the beauty of its situation, with the Lebanon range in the background and the Mediterranean in the foreground, and very few, probably, have ever visited it without astonishment at its fine and adequate housing and the thoroughness and breadth of its teaching. A faculty of more than eighty professors and instructors are engaged in teaching a thousand students from almost all parts of the East, representing every section of the Turkish Empire, the islands of the Greek Sea, Egypt, the Sudan, Persia, India, and Arabia, so that the influence of the College has gone to the ends of the earth, and the name of Mr. Jesup is known and honored in the Far East. The commanding position of the College has been due largely to the wise and statesmanlike restraint which has held it in sympathetic and brotherly relations with all the religions represented among its students. While these students are required to attend chapel services, they are left entirely free to follow their various faiths and to enjoy their religious convictions without pressure from the College, thus setting an example among the clashing creeds of the East, and in the very heart of bitter religious animosities, of disinterested teaching of truth, and so gaining an influence of the most solid and shaping character. Many short-sighted appeals have been made from time to time to the College to abandon this policy and make its teaching at Beirut polemic in character, but a broader view of the needs of the situation and of its possibilities has prevailed, and as a consequence the College holds a unique position in the East as a center of American influence, and may well be studied by the West as a striking example of the power of deep-seated faith in Christianity to impart its spirit by the atmosphere which it creates. It would be impossible by any form of monument to commemorate Mr. Jesup's memory as the Syrian Protestant College will commemorate it in all time.

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New Jersey and Public Utilities

The two reports of the New Jersey Railroad Commission afford a good illustration of the issue between effective regulation and virtual inaction. Of the three members of the Commission, two, Messrs. Congdon and Wilson, recommend a conservative policy. Absolute inaction of course they do not urge; it would be unfair to give the impression that they have no positive measures to propose. They do, however, deprecate the suggestion of a comprehensive policy of control over public utilities by a single administrative agent of the State. The problem of unjust discrimination in rates they do not seem to regard as serious. The only case they mention is

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one which the railway "promptly corrected." They explicitly express "their belief that it would not be wise nor fair to the board, nor to the railroads operating within the State, to commit the control of passenger and freight rates to any commission." They decline to express an opinion as to the wisdom of intrusting to a single board the control of all public utilities. In regard to other aspects of public service business they similarly recommend no general policy. The relation of the State to the Federal Government suggests to them nothing but inaction by the State in fixing rates. Manipulation of railway securities suggests to them nothing but power "to examine and report upon the financial condition of the roads" and "to exercise such control . . . as may be thought necessary to safeguard," not the public, but "the interests of stockholders and investors." The recurrence of accidents suggests nothing but very limited authority to hold hearings concerning grade crossings for the purpose of submitting facts to a court, a method of punishing "reprehensible employees" for violation of the regulations similar to those devised by the railway companies, and increased authority in investigating accidents, though not authority to enforce remedies. Although the drinking-water and other conveniences on the cars and in stations, the schedules of ferries, and the delay of suits in equity suggest to them the need of some increase of authority, the evil of passes seems not to have been considered worthy even of comment. In contrast to the majority report the recommendations made by the remaining member of the Commission, Mr. Borden D. Whiting, set forth a comprehensive and consistent policy. Those readers of The Outlook who remember Mr. Whiting's article in its columns last July will have no difficulty in surmising on what principles he bases his report. In the first place, he makes very clear the necessity for regulation of public utilities, and the proved value of the administrative commission as the instrument. He urges that such a commission should not be merely advisory, but be mandatory in its function. He sets forth also his reasons for the belief that the control of all public utilities, railways, trolley lines, light, heat, and power companies, pipe lines, water companies, and telephone and telegraph companies, should be in the hands of a single agency. To that single agency he would give ample power. He would give it a power, not to initiate rates, but, after hearings upon complaints, to decide what rates are reasonable, and to enforce their adoption; he would make it possible for this controlling agency to work in harmony with the Inter-State Commerce Commission; he would give it authority to hold railways to their charter obligations as to the maintenance of safe crossings; he would prohibit by law the abuse connected with the issuance of passes; he would give this board authority to pass upon the issuance of stocks and bonds by public utilities; and he would give to the board authority to deal with accidents. In brief, he urges for New Jersey the adoption of a bill similar to the Public Service Commissions Law of New York. Governor Fort, in his inaugural last week, agreed with the minority of the Railway Commission, for he declared himself as favoring the establishment of a Public Utilities Commission, supplanting the present State Railroad Commission, but having increased powers. The Act of 1907 establishing the Railroad Commission, he said, is good as far as it goes, but its powers are not sufficiently broad or drastic to compel a compliance with its orders or to reach many matters over which it should have plenary control. New Jersey is so situated that it cannot avoid facing a railway problem in its most complicated form. It has also become the home of great corporations. Here are presented very clearly two methods of dealing with a situation that New Jersey cannot escape. With this statement of the two methods we leave our readers to judge as to which is more worthy of an intelligent and free State.

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Assimilating the Adult Immigrant

The establishment of night schools in the great labor camps promises to be a potent means of assimilating our adult foreign population.

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The idea has been carried beyond the experimental stage by Miss Sarah Wool Moore, working under the auspices of the Italian Immigrant Society. At Aspinwall, Pennsylvania, such a school has been running for two years in the Pittsburgh Filtration Company's plant, actively helped by the officers of that company, and more recently other schools have been started at other points in Pennsylvania and New York. The immediate response of about one-third of the men in a camp shows that the work is not dependent on the inciting of interest, but meets a hunger that already exists. Many of these men have everything to learn, but some have had in their own country an education equivalent to that of our grammar schools. Instruction in the language has been adapted to the conditions by Miss Moore in a unique manner. Instead of the conventional lessons about things outside the workman's interests, Miss Moore has compiled text and copy books based on a study of the special phraseology needed, such as, "Get out of the way. Listen." "Look out for your head. Be quick." "Get off the track. Here comes the train." "Do you want a job? Yes, sir, I'm a railroad hand." "Here is a shovel and a pick; there is a crowbar." How to describe sickness and to ask for protection and justice; our modes of reckoning; the geography and history of our country; patriotism, and other preparation for citizenship, are among the subjects taught in these schools. The effect has been to turn into quiet, orderly communities camps that had previously been a disturbance and menace to their neighborhoods. Miss Moore's method of organization is to secure from the workmen themselves a petition to the educational authorities of the nearest village or of the State to open and maintain such schools, which are plainly functions of public education. Existing laws, unfortunately, have thus far made compliance impossible in most instances, and private benefaction has had to be invoked. For instance, a bill had to be presented to the Pennsylvania Legislature authorizing such schools. It was passed last year, but still needs a money grant to become effective. In New York existing laws do not make possible such schools at public expense outside of New York City, a condition which the Legislature will be asked to remedy. Meanwhile the extension of the work is at a standstill for lack of funds. The Italian padrones, the labor contractors who employ and too often exploit these men, do not take kindly to the spread of enlightenment among their subordinates, and in more than one instance have refused to allow such schools in their labor camps; but occasionally one is found who lends all possible aid. A serious hindrance to the work is found in the lack of properly trained teachers, a slight working knowledge of the language native to the pupils being necessary. It is not intended to confine the work to any one nationality. Petitions from workmen of twelve different nationalities were sent to the Pennsylvania Legislature urging the passage of this school law. Mr. Louis Cavallaro has begun an evening course at the New York School of Philanthropy to train teachers in Italian for these camp schools, and it is hoped that six months' courses in the immigrant languages may be offered by the colleges, the Young Men's Christian Associations, and other institutions. Wherever large constructive or mining operations are in process these schools are urgently needed. New York State is a strategic point, as the new Catskill water supply for New York City and canal and railway improvements are employing thousands of men. New Jersey, West Virginia, Ohio, and Illinois, and, above all, the Panama Canal Zone, present conditions that call urgently for such schools at once. A little later The Outlook proposes to describe this interesting educational movement in a special article.

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The British Parliament

The third session of the present British Parliament opened on Wednesday of this week with all the pomp and ceremony involved in the personal attendance of the King. It is likely to be an important and laborious session, and if it attempts to deal with all the legislation proposed by the Government and by the Labor and

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Socialistic parties, it will have an active season. What will probably happen will be the concentration of interest and work on two or three important measures and the dismissal of several hundred proposed reforms to the attention of other sessions, or to the oblivion into which most proposed legislation finally goes. Irish affairs are likely to come up in an acute form, and the Opposition will probably force a debate on the entire Irish situation for the purpose of putting the Government on the defensive and making political capital. The burning question of the modification of the liquor license in the interest of greater restriction and supervision will meet with the strenuous opposition of brewers, distillers, and license-holders. In England the license is actual property going with the real estate; in this country it is only a permission to sell. The new measure will probably provide for the cessation of all licenses at the end of a specific period and the lodging of the power to grant new licenses in the hands of authorities more representative of the popular will, so that progress will be made in the direction of local option. Another important matter will be old-age pensions, which all parties favor, but concerning the practical application of which there is the widest diversity of opinion, the great expense of any adequate treatment of the question being the chief obstacle. The matter of education is also likely to come up again and to develop, as at the last session, a radical difference of opinion between the two houses. The financial situation of the Government promises to be very interesting; for if the reforms which the Ministry is likely to urge are carried through, it will involve a large addition to the budget. It is stated that the Treasury will find it necessary to secure an addition of at least fifty millions of income.

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The Liquor Problem in Great Britain

It is often asserted that political and social advance in this country is hampered by the United States Constitution and the constitutions of the several States. England is frequently pointed to as a country which profits much in these matters from the fact that it has no written constitution and that Parliament is supreme. At the present time both countries—England and the United States—are dealing with the liquor problem; but it is only necessary to note the steps to this end which are being taken in each country to realize that in confronting this problem the United States, despite written constitutions, has a much freer hand than England. Both countries are proceeding on somewhat the same lines—both are working towards limiting the number of places at which intoxicating liquors are retailed and reducing the area of drink influence. But while it is possible for States like Georgia and Alabama to prohibit the sale of liquor within their areas, and for cities as populous as Worcester, Massachusetts, to adopt the same policy, in England all that statesmen like Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and Mr. Balfour can propose is a measure providing for a gradual decrease in the number of houses at which liquor is sold. Four years ago Mr. Balfour carried through Parliament an act to this end. By its provisions magistrates were given the power to refuse the renewal of licenses to houses which they regarded as unnecessary; and in each case compensation was paid to the dispossessed license-holder from a fund levied from the other licensed houses in his neighborhood. The number of licenses which can be so refused is limited by the funds available for compensation; and this restrictive provision has so retarded magisterial action that the 138,611 licensed houses existing in England and Wales four years ago have up to the present time been reduced only by three thousand as the result of Mr. Balfour's Act. The Campbell-Bannerman Government is not satisfied with this slow rate of progress, and it proposes in the session of 1908 to amend the Act of 1904 by introducing a time limit. After the expiration of this limit compensation would not be paid to dispossessed license-holders, and the magistrates would be free to close as many houses as they deemed expedient in the interest of the public at large.

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Where the Opposition Comes From

In opposition to this scheme of the Government there has arisen a movement which illustrates the different attitude towards the drink question in England and in the United States, and marks the freedom that American statesmen have in dealing with this question, in contrast with English statesmen. Brewery and beer-house debentures are in existence in England to the amount of one hundred millions sterling. These debentures are held by people in every rank of life; and a debenture-holders' defense committee has been formed to oppose the Government scheme. Among the members of this committee are men of high rank in the nobility. Some of them may be concerned for the reform of the public-house; but the fact that they are federated to defend this vested interest makes them opponents of the plan of reform by revocation of license. In this country, when a State or a city goes on a prohibition basis, due notice is thereby served on the drink-sellers that at the end of their licenses they must quit business. English licenses are granted for only a year; but by Mr. Balfour's Act of 1904 a license was made a freehold. It is the vested interest created by this Act and embodied in these debenture-holders that will endanger the fate in the House of Lords of any bill which, in response to popular demand, the Campbell-Bannerman Government may adopt as a measure of licensing reform.

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Significant Missionary Notes

The present expansion of Protestant missions, as shown by statistics in the valuable American Board Almanac for 1908, is considerably in advance of current ideas of it. The United States, Great Britain with its dependencies, and Continental Europe have in the field a force of over 15,000 men and women, with a supplementary army of over 92,000 native helpers trained by them. These occupy nearly 36,000 stations and out-stations. Of communicants gathered into churches there are over a million and a half, of whom over one-seventh were added last year, while under instruction there are over a million and a quarter others. The offerings for the support of this work in 1906 were nearly twenty-one and a half million dollars, of which all but about twelve per cent was contributed from American and British sources, the American slightly exceeding. It is significant that the native churches connected with the missions contributed out of their comparative poverty over thirteen hundred thousand dollars. The present rate of progress is shown by a comparison of two records for China thirty years apart, viz.:

	1876.	1906.
Number of missionary societies	29	82
Foreign workers	473	3,833
Stations and sub-stations	602	5,734
Pupils in schools	4,909	57,683
Communicants	13,035	154,142
Native contributions (in silver)	$9,271	$301,263

Compare this with the result of the first third of the century since Protestant missionary work began in China: six converts in thirty-five years. Passing by at present the equally promising prospect in India and Japan, the situation in China should peculiarly interest the American churches. It is a time of crisis. China, after the example of Japan, is now seeking to modernize herself so as to cope with aggressors. An educational system planned, as was the case in Japan, by American advice has been adopted and initiated with wide welcome in face of reactionary protests. It is only the secular and practical side of Western education that Young China is hungry for. Of the latent power thus to be added for good or evil to international forces we have no adequate conception. Christian principles must temper it. Christian Chinese are aware of this, and have begun at Peking and elsewhere home missionary societies for the evangelization of their countrymen. The need appears in the fact that there are 1,557 walled cities in which there is neither foreign missionary nor Chinese pastor. Such efforts deserve seconding. The 407 missionary hospitals and dispensaries, indirectly propagating Christianity through more than a million patients treated annually by their overworked staff of three hundred physicians, need reinforcing and extending. The educational work for both sexes carried on co-operatively by different missionary societies in well-placed colleges needs

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endowment. "Ya-Li," a plant from old Yale in the strategic city of Changsha in the heart of China, appeals for aid to American patriotism as well as philanthropy. Here is "the open door" for investments of far-reaching historical effect.

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Do We Comprehend Conditions in China?

In 1906 Professor Edward C. Moore, of Harvard; and Dr. James L. Barton, Secretary of the American Board (Congregational), were appointed by the Board to visit its missions in China. They did so, traveling over nine thousand miles in that country. Their report has just been published. Not only those interested in Christian propaganda, but all men, should read it, for it notes certain facts not generally appreciated. For example, while China and India have populations of about the same average density, China has very many, but India very few, cities of more than a hundred thousand inhabitants. As to agricultural resources, we do not realize that, despite primitive methods, two crops of rice and sometimes a third crop of some other product are produced in South China each year. If the land-tenure system were favorable, the more thinly settled North might be of incalculable value for grazing. Nor do we realize that, of the resources beneath the soil, there are vast coal areas, scarcely touched, in many provinces, that in Shansi alone being reported gigantic enough to supply the world with coal for a thousand years; and yet "the available supply of fuel is so small, and the means of transportation are so inadequate, that the suffering of the poor . . . is appalling." Nor do we realize that the Chinese are essentially a domestic people, though every one knows that a marked feature of their life is their reverence for parents. The status of woman in China is, on the whole, higher than in any other Oriental country; while as to children, though infanticide is not uncommon, they are "in the home objects of affection, and their training is followed with solicitude." Indeed, "the control of the family or clan over the individual offsets in many ways the weakness of the Government." That Government is an absolute monarchy. Yet we certainly do not realize that China is one of the most democratic countries in the world. Though not only the viceroys but the great majority of lesser officials are appointed directly by the Throne, if they "cannot conduct the affairs of their offices with a degree of quietness and order and with the favor of the people, they are removed." The village, the smallest unit of the Government, has control of its own affairs, and it is in his own village that the Chinaman gets his first lessons in the application of democratic principles. The new democratic era for China, however, dates from 1900. Reforms previously resisted have now been introduced. The most significant of them, we think, is the adoption of modern education as the basis for civil service examinations. Also, for the first time in the history of China, the idea is beginning to prevail that the education of women should in a measure keep pace with the education of men. Another indication of the new era is the great increase in numbers and influence of the Chinese newspapers. They now quickly reach readers throughout the country, for though a few years ago the Government had no post-office system, it is operating this year about twenty-five hundred offices, and, what is more, because of the kind of training afforded by Christian schools in China, "Christian men out of proportion to their relative number in the country are employed in the postal administration." This is as it should be, for the educational work accomplished by the religious societies in China has been of a high order, especially that of the American Board, with its village and city day schools, its boarding and preparatory schools, its colleges and hospitals. Finally, the nearly two hundred thousand Chinese Christian church members show that China has come not only to a political but also to a religious self-consciousness never before evinced there. The missionaries in China have indeed a double opportunity.

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Herculaneum to be Excavated

Professor Charles Waldstein long ago awakened the interest of all lovers of classical antiquity by his proposal, by the aid of contributions from Europe

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and America, to undertake the gigantic task of excavating Herculaneum, buried nearly two thousand years ago by the same volcanic eruption of Vesuvius which destroyed Pompeii. A small part of Herculaneum only has been laid bare, and with results far richer proportionately than those achieved at Pompeii. Herculaneum remains to-day as it was at the close of that day of doom for it in A.D. 79, and, owing to the manner in which it was buried, its treasures probably remain for the most part intact and undestroyed. To bring these again to the light of day has long been the dream of archæologists, but the difficulties in the way have been so stupendous that they have daunted all who contemplated such an enterprise. Professor Waldstein's excavations at Platæa and Eretria and the Heraion of Argos and his discovery of the tomb of Aristotle, as well as his other archæological work, pointed him out as preeminently a fitting person to lead in the most difficult feat yet remaining in the field of archæology—that of bringing to light the deep-buried and rock-incrusted treasures of ancient Herculaneum, which was the resort and abode of wealthy Romans twenty centuries ago. Although Professor Waldstein's plan contemplated Italian control of the work of excavation and Italian ownership of all the objects of interest that might be recovered, Italian sensitiveness took alarm and an agitation that proved effective was begun by Italian writers against the scheme. They asserted that it would be an insult to national pride for so important an enterprise to be carried out by foreign aid, which would place Italy on a par with Asia Minor and other regions where foreigners for years have been employed in delving among the ruins of a buried past. The Italian Government, therefore, felt compelled to reject the friendly proffer of aid in excavating Herculaneum, and declared that the work would be undertaken by the State, "although gratefully taking into account the advice of eminent foreigners, such as Professor Waldstein." Last May a similar proposal with reference to the excavation of Socri and Crotona in Magna Græcia was put forth by Professor von Duhn, of the University of Heidelberg, but this scheme also, for similar reasons, was negatived by the Italian Government, which announced that the State would engage in the work of excavating the cities of Italy in which Greek civilization flourished centuries before the Christian era. Both these declarations on the part of the Italian Government were made many months ago, and the inference began to be drawn that, like many other Governmental promises, the time of their fulfillment was to be left to the indefinite future. The announcement, therefore, the other day, that the Government will proceed forthwith with the work of excavating Herculaneum is specially interesting and welcome. It may be added that there is no reason to doubt the effectiveness and carefulness with which the work of excavation will be done under national auspices. The work of excavating ancient Rome, from the Capitol to the Coliseum, begun under Pope Pius VII., was carried on by him and others with splendid results. The more recent excavations in the Roman Forum and vicinity, under Signor Boni, are also in evidence to show that Italian excavators are well qualified for the still greater and more difficult task now before them at Herculaneum. The work probably will not be done as rapidly as it would have been accomplished had Professor Waldstein's scheme been carried into execution, and it will be many decades before the work will be completed. There will be undoubtedly, however, sufficient of the ancient city and its treasures brought to light year by year abundantly to excite the interest and employ the study of scholars, and therefore the more leisurely way of excavating may, after all, have some advantages.

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Cheese and Other Things

The arrival in the port of New York of two thousand imported empty Camembert cheese-boxes, and other boxes bearing the name of well-known French cheeses, throws an interesting light on one form of export and import carried on by this country to a degree entirely unsuspected by the

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patrons of various foods and wines. The American who was disturbed on landing in Tokyo to find himself face to face with a stove manufactured in Peekskill, New York, was not in so bad a case as the American in a cheese-producing section of New York State who pays the price for an imported cheese and takes delight in the superiority of his trained taste, and does not know that the cheese he is eating was produced on the outskirts of his own town. A great quantity of American wines, sent over to France, are at once naturalized, change their character and return to this country as choice brands of Burgundy and Bordeaux production. Foreign carpets, if reports are to be believed, are manufactured on the Hudson; and many varieties of artistic creations, for which heavy prices are paid, are reputed to have a purely domestic origin. This is the tribute of business to the frailty of those Americans who think that because a thing bears a foreign name it is a better article than if it had been made at home. It is also an evidence of the unregenerate character of business even as conducted in farming communities, where simple integrity and plain honesty are sometimes reputed to be universal motives. The Western man who purchases anything from the wicked Oriental must always have an expert at his elbow to detect a possible fraud; and coins, scarabæi, and even sepulchers are manufactured with extraordinary dexterity along the Nile. There are thriving establishments for the production of antiques in Italy, Austria, and Germany; and in all art-loving countries, by a very practical transmigration of genius, works by great masters can still be secured by Americans who love art not wisely but too well. Here is a field for the moralist, who will find in it all manner of fascinating by-paths, and minor fictions which, if they fall short of the great imaginations of such women as Madame Humbert and the originator of the Diamond Necklace plot, are not lacking in the facile fancy which makes fiction commercially profitable. A very interesting chapter might be written concerning the manufacture of foreign titles for American consumption.

The American Academy in Rome

In order to secure the million-dollar endowment fund for the American Academy in Rome, an endeavor has been made to secure ten subscriptions of $100,000 each, it being understood that when $900,000 have been secured, the remaining $100,000 will be forthcoming. Up to this time six subscriptions of $100,000 have been secured, and efforts are now being made to raise $100,000 each by Yale University, Columbia University, the University of Chicago, and the Society of Beaux-Arts Architects. The founders have already placed in the treasury of the Academy an amount equivalent to four per cent on their subscriptions in order to meet current expenses, and the school has been in operation for some time past. It had no students of its own until the present year, but provided a home for a number of scholarship men from various institutions, and gave them general suggestions and advice for study, together with some instruction. Last year the Executive Committee selected three scholarship men in architecture, sculpture, and painting respectively, who are to receive $1,000 yearly for three years and to follow the course of study laid out by the Academy. Eleven men were regularly accredited to and were working in the Academy during the season 1906–7, and five men came from other institutions asking for the privileges of the Academy and making use of its draughting-room. Other applicants for these privileges could not be accommodated for lack of room. The Academy has direct control only over its own scholarship men; the other men using its facilities are responsible to their respective committees at home. All the available room in the Villa Mirafiori has been used, and it is now proposed, if possible, to buy a narrow strip of land between a new cross street recently laid out and the Academy grounds. This would complete an entire city block and afford desirable sites for studios. The Villa has been thoroughly renovated and repaired. The special committee of trustees has chosen two scholarship men in the department of architecture and sculpture, Mr. Ernest Farnham Lewis, of

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Boston, being chosen in the department of architecture, and Mr. Sherry E. Fry, now in Europe, in the department of sculpture. By the decision of the subdivision of painters, no painter will be appointed this year. It will be seen that the Academy, although it has not yet received its full endowment, is actively at work and rapidly demonstrating its need and its great possible usefulness.

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The City as a Business Corporation

The Public Service Commission for New York City has transmitted to the Legislature the report of its first six months' operations, from July 1 to December 31. We shall leave interpretation of this report until we are able to secure a complete copy and give it careful examination. It is evident that only very imperfect abstracts have been furnished by the daily press, which generally gives space to public topics in the inverse order of their importance—three-quarters of a column to the work of the Public Service Commission and two columns and a half to one day's report of the Thaw trial. There are, however, in the Commission's report four recommendations which we think of much more than local significance. The principles embodied in these recommendations are equally applicable to all municipalities. They are as follows:

1. A Constitutional amendment exempting from the Constitutional debt limit all city bonds issued for the construction of self-supporting rapid transit lines.

2. An amendment of the rapid transit law providing that the extension of a rapid transit lease may be made to terminate at the same time as the original lease.

3. An amendment giving the city power to allow the construction of rapid transit lines by private companies upon payment of part of the earnings to the city, with a reservation to the city of the privilege to purchase any time after a period of not more than twenty or twenty-five years without any payment for the franchise itself.

4. An amendment authorizing the local authorities to make leases for a longer period than twenty years, and to agree to the purchase of the equipment by the city at a fair price at the termination of the lease.

The first, second, and fourth of these amendments appear to The Outlook in every way desirable. The municipality ought not to be prohibited from incurring debt for purchasing property which pays more than the interest on the debt. A sharp line should be drawn between those improvements which, however profitable or necessary, are non-productive and therefore really involve debt, and those which are productive and therefore really do not involve debt. Thus, for example, New York City has a nominal debt of fifty millions of dollars incurred in the construction of the subway, but the lessees of the subway are paying to the city in rent, not only all the interest on the bonds, but also enough more to insure the payment of the bonds in full at the expiration of the fifty years. In this case it is clear that the debt of the city is rather nominal than real, since it involves no expenditure of money by the city. The second and fourth amendments are both legitimate and, in our judgment, necessary. The city should be allowed to make a lease for a period not exceeding fifty years; it can hardly be expected to succeed in making a lease which will not last as long as the probable lifetime of the lessee. At all events, the function of the Legislature is not to decide how long a lease it is wise for the city to make, but how long a lease the city may be permitted, in the exercise of its own discretion, to make.

The third amendment we are very doubtful about. It seems to us to be rendered unnecessary by the first amendment. If the city is authorized to raise money for the construction of self-supporting rapid transit lines, it does not need to ask private corporations to raise the money on its behalf, and the experience of the past has shown that when private capital once gets control of a good thing, it is slow to relinquish that control, and the difficulties in the way of compelling relinquishment are often so great as to be well-nigh insuperable.

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The time has come, in our judgment, for all municipalities to retain in their own hands the ownership, although not necessarily the operation, of all their highways, whether subway, surface, or elevated, whether operated by steam, electricity, or by horse-power.

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An American Composer

For two years Edward Alexander MacDowell's brain had been under a deepening shadow, and his death in New York City last week was the coming of light after a long twilight. Those who love American art and are moved almost with a passion of gratitude to the men who illustrate it in beautiful or commanding ways have felt deeply the tragedy of the eclipse of an eminently fruitful career, which promised to be a great one. The pathos of the struggle through which Keats passed when, in the hour that he knew he possessed the gift of genius, he knew also that he must die, has been felt by a host of Americans as they sorrowfully came to understand that the composer of "Woodland Sketches," "Sea Pieces," "New England Idyls," "The Indian Suite," and the group of beautiful songs of pure lyric quality had finished his work.

Born in New York in 1861, MacDowell developed early an extraordinary musical instinct and musical talent. He was fortunately, however, among those children of genius who are always the servants of craftsmanship, divining the truth which Mr. La Farge has so admirably stated in his "Considerations on Painting," that they who love art must be willing to sweep the floor and tend the hearth. Endowed with the creative power, with sensitive feeling, and with remarkable facility, MacDowell shrank from no drudgery when he finally awoke to his calling. At fourteen he entered the Paris Conservatory, at a time when he declared that he could paint better than he could play. The atmosphere of the institution rather than its direct training brought him into line with his vocation. Becoming tired of Paris, he went to Stuttgart, where he was soon in rebellion against the didactic and pedantic spirit of the teaching. Wise advice sent him to Wiesbaden, and later to Frankfort Conservatory, which counted Raff and Clara Schumann among its instructors, and later he became an instructor at Darmstadt Conservatory. At this period he made his first ventures in the field of composition. He returned to Frankfort, gave private lessons, but laid the emphasis of his energy on composition. During a visit to Weimar, in those very interesting rooms in which the tragedy of Brahms's falling asleep was enacted, he so interested Liszt that the famous pianist asked him to play one of his own compositions at an approaching musical convention in Zurich.

In 1889 MacDowell returned to America, made his home in Boston, and soon took rank as one of the foremost teachers of music in this country, his reputation as a composer almost keeping pace with his reputation as an instructor. Early in 1896 two of his longest compositions were played by the Boston Symphony Orchestra; his second concerto had already been played by the Philharmonic Society in New York. In 1896 he became professor of music in Columbia University (resigning in 1904), and for seven years, as he said in a letter, he put all his energy and enthusiasm into the cause of art at the University. The time was not ripe, and no American university could furnish a group of students sufficiently educated musically to inspire and give satisfaction to a teacher who was a man of genius. On leaving the University he took up private teaching, and devoted himself to composition, but within a year signs of nervous breakdown appeared, and it soon became clear that his work was ended. His high conscientiousness, entire devotion to his art, and relentless industry had overstrained him; and he is to be counted one of the victims, not of genius, but of a passion for work.

MacDowell was a man of rare attractiveness, though one must have known him well to feel his charm. With those who casually met him he was reserved and shy. His talk was wonderfully

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illuminating. He never compromised his standards; he never conceded to the interests of the moment, or gave anything more than his time and strength to work essential to his necessities. His genius, his temperament, his enthusiasm, he reserved for his art.

He was known more widely than any other American composer. His music is as distinctive as Grieg's. Indeed, it has many traits in common with Grieg's music. In form it is lyrical, never epic. It is, nevertheless, often strong and vigorous. MacDowell had what might be called a sensitive ear for color; richness in harmony and in orchestration characterize his work. Even his piano work has the orchestral quality. At the same time, his compositions for the piano are *Klaviermässig*, as the Germans say. Above all, his music is impressionistic. Unlike much of the modern programme music, it is not morbid or grotesque, and it almost never undertakes to be narrative, but rather conveys a mood; it is the expression of a poetic temperament. His work for orchestra, for the piano, and for the voice constitutes, up to the present time, a real contribution from America to the musical literature of the world.

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No Exit

A good deal of apprehension has been awakened in France and Germany by the increase in the number of suicides in those countries, and the causes of the apparently growing dissatisfaction with life have been discussed in the most serious temper. The proportion of people who take their lives in this country is much less than in France or Germany, because, on the whole, the conditions of life here are much easier, the opportunities more ample, the atmosphere more hopeful. But there is in this country, as abroad, a regrettable number of men and women who destroy themselves. That the suicidal mania is contagious has been shown again and again; that it may be fostered and that it may be discouraged have been amply demonstrated. At times and in localities extreme measures have been taken; and the fact that in certain places abroad indignities were offered to the bodies of those who destroyed themselves has had an almost immediate effect in diminishing the number of suicides.

It is true that in many cases persons who commit suicide are temporarily irrational and irresponsible. This is always the case when self-destruction results from disease; it is sometimes the case when it results from great calamities or bitter disappointments. In such cases men and women who die by their own hands are as much the victims of disease as if they had succumbed in the regular course to an inevitable end. No more responsibility attaches to their act, and it has no more moral significance, than the falling into the sea of a man blown from the yards of a ship. The great majority of suicides, on the other hand, are strong enough to will to live, if they choose to do it; and it cannot be too strongly insisted that no one has a right to do anything else than will to live. Responsible suicide is the refuge of the weak and the cowardly. It solves no problem, ends no experience, brings no possible peace. Mr. Vedder's striking picture of "The Suicide" ought to be widely exhibited, because it indicates, in the most tragic and impressive way, that the man who goes out of this gate goes to face a heavier trial, a more terrible condition, a more exacting fate. He who disregards the sign "No exit!" written over this door does so at the supreme peril of his soul.

In the first place, his life is not his to dispose of; and in the second place, his attempt to secure release is desertion. It is a coward's way of trying to avoid a perilous duty or a piece of hard work. Whoever tries that path will find himself facing his past in a most menacing and implacable shape, and will discover on the instant that, instead of release from unhappy conditions, he has created a new set of conditions far more terrible than those from which he has lawlessly withdrawn himself. Phillips Brooks once said that the way to escape from God is to flee into him. There is no way of escaping God. The only way is to accept his will and the things which he has ordered. There is no escape from the discipline of life, however hard and

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apparently relentless it may be. The one true and sane way of dealing with it so as to master it is to accept what it brings, to bear with fortitude the burdens which it imposes, and to learn with intelligence the lessons which it teaches. As a rule, the suicide takes himself out of the way, and leaves the difficulties he has created, the responsibilities he has assumed, the tragedy which he may have brought about, to fall on his family or his friends. Instead of doing a man's work in the world and filling a man's place, he turns coward and leaves others to endure what he has brought upon himself. For no man can escape the reaction of his own deeds, here or hereafter. He will be brought face to face with them, because they not only modify conditions, but they modify him. Instead of leaving the results of his acts behind him when he forces the door of death and goes out through it, he carries all these things with him, only to face them in a form and under conditions which must make them a thousandfold more terrible, because he can no longer blind his eyes to them.

Men and women in our generation must be taught again that life is not a pleasure-ground or a play-spell. It is a military service; a tremendous and searching education; a discipline which goes to the very roots of character. It is full of all kinds of interest; it overflows at times and in places with pleasure; there are deep springs of happiness in it; but fundamentally it is an education; and the chief business of men and women in this world is not to have a pleasant time, to make things easy for themselves, to live as in a Garden of Eden in which everybody is at ease because everybody is innocent. It is the danger of a luxurious and pleasure-loving age to forget the tremendous forces that play through society and the unescapable duties which are laid upon men and women because they are immortal. There ought to be more of the Spartan in Americans of to-day, more power of resistance, more strength to bear burdens, more courage to face disaster and apparent defeat. Too many men and women are morally flabby. They have no power of resistance; they are exhausted by the least strain; they surrender in the face of any sudden danger. In too many homes the disciplining and training of the will are forgotten; boys and girls grow up as if they were to be masters of their own time and conditions, and are obliged to learn later that every man and woman born into this world is born into a fixed moral order, and that success and failure, happiness and misery, lie in the acceptance or rejection of that order. We need fewer pleasure-seekers and more soldiers. We need the men and women who are not afraid to face dangers, whose strength is evoked by trials, and who know that their lives are not their own. The suicide is either insane or a coward.

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A Fearless Judge

Many years ago the Emperor of China granted to American citizens the right to reside in the Empire and to enjoy the security of living under the administration of law by American officers. This is called extra-territoriality. Congress thereupon enacted statutes clothing our consuls in China with judicial functions. Of course the Emperor's concession imposed an obligation upon us to see that the justice administered should be of the highest character. It has not always been of the highest character, and there has not been uniformity in the administration of the law by the consular courts. Hence, among others, James G. Blaine, when Secretary of State, recognized the necessity for the establishment of a more central authority, and one which would not be semi-diplomatic but wholly judicial in character. When John Hay became Secretary of State, he earnestly urged the matter, justly declaring that, even if our consular officers were trained lawyers, they would not have time to devote to the regular questions which came before them. There were thus the drawbacks of professional inefficiency and low standards of character. When Mr. Root became Secretary of State, he pushed the matter to a successful conclusion, Congressional action proving increasingly effective on the subject. Mr. Root foreshadowed his later instructions to the American delegation at The

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Hague in the matter of an entirely judicial international tribunal of justice to supplement the present semi-diplomatic body, when he followed Mr. Hay in urging the establishment in China of a properly constituted court, presided over by competent and duly qualified judges, to adjudicate the legal controversies arising affecting the interests of American citizens in China, as is due the interests of justice and the rights of those citizens alike. According to the ideas of our successive Secretaries of State, the new court should have original jurisdiction in all judicial proceedings whereof jurisdiction has been exercised by American Consuls and Ministers, by virtue of treaties between the United States and China.

According to the State Department's recommendation which Congress enacted into law, the officers of the court are appointed by the President. The Judge receives a salary of eight thousand dollars a year, the District Attorney five thousand, and the Marshal and the Clerk three thousand each. In June, 1906, guided by Mr. Spooner in the Senate and Mr. Denby in the House, Congress finally constituted a United States court in China. Six months later the court entered upon practical operations, and Lebbeus Redmond Wilfley was chosen to be the presiding judge.

Judge Wilfley is a Missourian by birth. He is forty-one years of age, and is a graduate of the Central College of Fayette, Missouri, and of the Yale Law School. He was engaged in law practice in St. Louis until 1901, when he went to Manila as Attorney-General for the Philippines. Like Secretary Taft, so Judge Wilfley abandoned a brilliant, permanent professional career at home to obey what he conceived to be the call of duty to a post of need abroad. He remained five years at Manila before going to Shanghai. In politics he is a Gold Democrat. His appointment, therefore, under a Republican President is a creditable manifestation of the non-partisan spirit which should always animate the Departments of State and Justice.

The court has now been in operation a year. Judge Wilfley has heard many cases in Shanghai, and has also held sittings in Tientsin, Hankau, and Canton. The present seems a proper time, therefore, to chronicle the work of this new court, its problems, and the means taken to meet them.

For many years Shanghai has been an international dumping-ground. It has received an influx of many undesirable characters, an influx in which our country has been only too prominently represented. Among these characters were certain "shyster" lawyers who had found it convenient to leave other places. Much more in evidence were sharpers, swindlers, and gamblers, but especially so large a number of loose women, who either came from America or who found it advisable to claim to have done so, that not only in Shanghai but in all Chinese ports the term "American girl" has become a vernacular term of moral contempt and reproach. Some of the lawyers above mentioned were in league with the swindlers and bad characters, defending their interests, assisting them to defy law and decency, and confusing the consular courts. Of course this boldness and arrogance of the combined resources of vice had a pernicious effect upon the American name in general, and in particular upon our commercial, social, educational, and other interests throughout China. Such a condition confronted Judge Wilfley when he took charge of the new court.

As the first necessary step in the execution of justice, Judge Wilfley gave notice that a written examination would be held for admission to the Bar of his court. There were eight applicants. Two passed! Those who did not claimed that Judge Wilfley had acted without the authority either of the Department of State or the Department of Justice, and that he should be "impeached." As a matter of fact, the legality of holding examinations of the sort here objected to is a question upon which the Supreme Court has long since passed.

Within a week of its opening a number of the leading gambling-house keepers and swindlers were brought before the court. They were tried, convicted, and sentenced to terms of imprisonment. This startled the foreign criminal class and correspondingly impressed the Chi-

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nese. In one specially flagrant case an American had induced a Chinaman to pay six thousand taels ($4,500) for the lease of a building to be used as a gambling resort at the coming races, knowing perfectly well that gambling was prohibited by the Municipal Council. The American court gave judgment in favor of the Chinaman and ordered the District Attorney to file the information against the American for obtaining money under false pretenses. Within ten days that American was tried and sentenced to one year's imprisonment in Shanghai jail. Judge Wilfley's course with regard to other loose characters was characterized by a like promptness and efficiency. All the eight American keepers of houses of ill fame were brought into court. They pleaded guilty and were fined a thousand dollars each. So summary was the action against disreputable houses that all of them kept by American women were closed, and their inmates, over sixty in all, thereupon left China.

In civil as well as in criminal cases Judge Wilfley's record is worthy of note. The result of Judge Wilfley's activity is not only the recovery of the American good name, and not only the conservation of American interests, but also present confidence on the part of the Chinese that their rights are exactly as secure when considered by this tribunal as are the rights of an American.

Legislation should now be secured from Congress to correct defects in the system of law in force in China. Judge Wilfley urges the passage of an act providing, first, for certain specific and peculiar needs of Americans in China, and, second, for the adoption for general purposes of the California codes as a basis of jurisprudence. This would be appropriate and practical, since appeals from Judge Wilfley's court lie to the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit, which sits in California. Nor should Congressmen neglect their opportunity of showing in this way their appreciation of an American who has redeemed the American name in China, in spite of the threats and obstruction of corrupt and selfish enemies who hate and fear an unswerving administration of justice.

Edmund Clarence Stedman

No one who knew and loved Mr. Stedman can write dispassionately of him at the moment when the world seems lonelier because he has gone out of it, bearing his dauntless courage, his bright intelligence, his genius for friendship with him. He was much more than a writer who had contributed to our literature a handful of striking or beautiful lyrics and a substantial body of the most serious and important criticism; he was also a representative scholar in letters, whose natural gifts and personal force had been enriched and directed by constant contact with the best in thought and art. It is a marvel that the author of "The Victorian Poets" has done so much sound and genuine work in verse and prose under the pressure of so many other forms of activity. In this respect he stands alone; and no small share of the deep respect in which he is held by those who knew him is due to the perception of the tireless work which underlay his success. No man of letters in this country has stood more consistently for the dignity and high traditions of his craft than he; and no man has given his work a finer flavor of scholarship, and imparted to it more generously that largeness of view and quiet adjustment to the knowledge of the time in many departments which are possible to the student alone. If he had written occasional lyrics, or those lighter essays which are sometimes produced rapidly in leisure moments, his success would have been comprehensible; but his work has had a substance and a continuity such as no other man has achieved who has suffered any division of his vital energy.

The fiber of Mr. Stedman's work is manifested in other ways as well. His virility, at a time when so much writing is smitten with debility, is impressive and refreshing. The note of intense and vivid feeling which one hears in his later verse has a kind of tonic in it, because it brings with it a sense of vigor, health, and free and powerful play of life. He had nothing in common with

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the Decadents; he was a man to the very heart. He was free from diseased curiosity, from that pruriency which is always thinking about vice without daring to practice it, from the sentimental egoism which makes life one long suffering, and contemporary verse very largely a waving of funeral plumes. Mr. Stedman faced his experiences and bore his burdens with a quiet heroism which not only inspired profound admiration, but touched his work with spiritual reality and dignity. His optimism was neither easy nor shallow; it had been tested, and it rose from a deep healthfulness of soul. There is a ring in his books which was in the man; decision of character, pluck, and *élan* are evident to all close students of his style. One feels that he could have led a forlorn hope with that brilliant audacity which sometimes makes a defeat more splendid than victory.

Mr. Stedman was already a student at Yale in his sixteenth year, and his work shows distinct traces of the classical background of his education—a background which seems to be essential to the practice of the highest kind of criticism. No other education quite enables a man to orient himself in the field of universal art. The nervous energy, the intensity of purpose, characteristic of the New Englanders, stamped Mr. Stedman's life and work from the beginning. He worked with a lavish prodigality of strength and ease, a heroic persistency, an unfaltering courage quite beyond praise as a matter of character. To an inherited vigor of conscience he added freedom of imagination and a love of life broad enough to include Bohemia itself. He had moral sanity without a trace of the rigidity of Puritanism or the tendency to didacticism which weakens the power and blurs the beauty of art by transforming what ought to be a deep, unforced revelation of the ethical order into a formal exposition. If a single word can convey the essential quality of Mr. Stedman's work and of his personality, that word is vitality; expressed in his career in the variety of his interests, and, in his prose and verse, in a nervous intensity of style, a condensation of thought, which sometimes gives his sentence individual brilliancy of style, but interrupts the organic movement, the easy flow of the paragraph. As journalist, editor, man of affairs, and poet, he showed the highest reverence for his art by his care to detach it from the practical interests of his life; jealously exacting from himself unstinted time and toil in preparation and revision.

His gift was essentially lyrical, and his inspirations were largely vital; he was more quickly moved by the happenings of life than by the achievements or suggestions of art. His characteristic pieces are full of spirited movement, of the air of action, of swift and free narrative power. Such poems as the lines on "Morgan" give the reader the impression that, in an earlier time, Mr. Stedman would have written stirring ballads. His larger and more studied poems, "The Dartmouth Ode," "Hawthorne," the fine ode on Shelley, betray wide familiarity with poetic forms, a gift for interpretation in terms of the imagination which is the poetic form of high-class criticism, and academic precision and taste. Mr. Stedman was at his best, however, like all the poets of his generation, in those short poems in which he was freest and most spontaneous; in such a song, for instance, as "The Discoverer." The best example of his largest and strongest manner may be found in "The Hand of Lincoln;" a piece of work projected on high lines, with a weight and gravity of manner admirably suited to its noble theme.

The deftness of the trained craftsman, the expert in versification, the lover of the devices and dexterities of his art, finds play occasionally in Mr. Stedman's verse in the use of words brought from afar, in excess of allusion, in a slight forcing of the note. His work shows, however, the stamp of perfect sincerity and of tireless and exacting devotion. It is significant, not only for what it contains, but for that which, by association, it represents; for Mr. Stedman did more than any other American, not only to interpret our own poetry to us, but, by exposition and example, to put us in touch with the nature of poetry. He stands earliest in the line of distinguished men of letters and scholars who have spoken on the

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Percy Turnbull Foundation by virtue of his lifelong study of the principles of one art of which he was himself a successful practitioner.

Man of affairs, critic, poet, journalist, editor, Mr. Stedman found time for those affections, courtesies, charities, which endear a man to his fellows; and in the throng of men who filled the body of the Church of the Messiah at his funeral there was probably not one who did not recall some word of encouragement, some active kindness, some hand-clasp in sorrow or trial from the man whose own heavy burdens never lessened the energy of his kindness. He was identified with all the interests of art; at the time of his death he was planning large things for the National Institute of Arts and Letters, in the presidency of which he followed Mr. Warner and Mr. Howells; he gave much time and thought to securing protection of literary property; he was an honored member of the Century Association, of whose finest traditions he was an exemplar; his last speech was a characteristic acknowledgment of an error in correcting a friend's quotation from Milton at the Authors Club on New Year's Eve. He was, on great occasions, a representative of Literature, and his public speech was notable for dignity of thought and finish of expression. All things considered, he was the most representative Man of Letters in the metropolis, as he was one of the foremost men of his time in the country.

EDMUND CLARENCE STEDMAN

BY HENRY VAN DYKE

Read at the funeral of Mr. Stedman, on January 21

Oh, quick to feel the lightest touch
  Of beauty or of truth,
Rich in the thoughtfulness of age,
  The hopefulness of youth,
The courage of the gentle heart,
  The wisdom of the pure,
The strength of finely tempered souls
  To labor and endure!

The blue of springtime in your eyes
  Was never quenched by pain;
And winter brought your head the crown
  Of snow without a stain.
The poet's mind, the prince's heart,
  You kept until the end,
Nor ever faltered in your work,
  Nor ever failed a friend.

You followed, through the quest of life,
  The light that shines above
The tumult and the toil of men,
  And shows us what to love.
Right loyal to the best you knew,
  Reality or dream,
You ran the race, you fought the fight,
  A follower of the Gleam.

We lay upon your well-earned grave
  The wreath of asphodel,
We speak above your peaceful face
  The tender words *Fare well.*

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For well you fare, in God's good care,
Somewhere within the blue,
And know, to-day, your dearest dreams
Are true,—and true,—and true!

THE HAND OF LINCOLN

BY EDMUND CLARENCE STEDMAN

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Look on this cast, and know the hand
That bore a nation in its hold:
From this mute witness understand
What Lincoln was,—how large of mold

The man who sped the woodman's team,
And deepest sunk the plowman's share,
And pushed the laden raft astream,
Of fate before him unaware.

This was the hand that knew to swing
The ax—since thus would Freedom train
Her son—and made the forest ring,
And drove the wedge, and toiled amain.

Firm hand, that loftier office took,
A conscious leader's will obeyed,
And, when men sought his word and look,
With steadfast might the gathering swayed.

No courtier's toying with a sword,
Nor minstrel's, laid across a lute;
A chief's, uplifted to the Lord
When all the kings of earth were mute!

The hand of Anak, sinewed strong,
The fingers that on greatness clutch;
Yet, lo! the marks their lines along
Of one who strove and suffered much.

For here in knotted cord and vein
I trace the varying chart of years;
I know the troubled heart, the strain,
The weight of Atlas—and the tears.

Again I see the patient brow
That palm erewhile was wont to press;
And now 'tis furrowed deep, and now
Made smooth with hope and tenderness.

For something of a formless grace
This molded outline plays about;
A pitying flame, beyond our trace,
Breathes like a spirit, in and out,—

The love that cast an aureole
Round one who, longer to endure,

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Called mirth to ease his ceaseless dole,
Yet kept his nobler purpose sure.

Lo, as I gaze, the statured man,
Built up from yon large hand, appears:
A type that Nature wills to plan
But once in all a people's years.

What better than this voiceless cast
To tell of such a one as he,
Since through its living semblance passed
The thought that bade a race be free!

THE PURE FOOD LAW

WHAT HAS IT ACCOMPLISHED?

BY ALICE LAKEY

Chairman Food Committee National Consumers' League

THE Pure Food Law, known officially as the Food and Drugs Act, of June 30, 1906, has so vitally affected the food-producing interests of this country that in studying the question of what the new law has accomplished one must first consider its effect on the food manufacturers and distributers, both wholesale and retail, and then what effect the law has had in the various States in checking inter-State commerce in adulterated, misbranded, poisonous, or deleterious foods, drugs, liquors, and medicines.

Prior to the passage of the law certain State food officials reported that they were powerless to prevent the entrance into the State of adulterated goods, which were generally introduced in bulk and without a manufacturer's name on them.

The first change noticed, then, in food products is in labels, and this brings up the question, Do consumers read labels? One food official says they do, and he proves his assertion by citing a certain line of food product that has been driven out of the market since the passage of the Act. Many manufacturers and retailers declare, on the contrary, that consumers do not inspect labels, and they seem to prove their point by citing that oils now labeled "cottonseed" sell as readily as when falsely branded. They assert, moreover, that many consumers leave the ordering of supplies to a butler or cook or else do it over the telephone, never seeing the goods until they are served on the table. The jobber in food products samples what he buys, as a visit to any wholesale house demonstrates. He buys, as the saying is, "with his eyes open." Not so the average consumer.

Nevertheless, whether the consumer reads labels or not, the fact remains that the evidence of the working of the new law is seen by the changed labels on food and drug products. It is stated that $250,000 worth of old labels have been thrown away since the refusal of the Department of Agriculture to sanction their use after October 1, 1907, when the year had elapsed in which they could be used, with the addition of a supplementary paster to make them conform to the requirements of the law. One firm of grocers doing both a wholesale and retail business has destroyed $15,000 worth of labels since October 1, because they technically did not tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. For example, what has been known as calf's foot jelly is not made entirely from calves' feet, but from the head as well. After the new law was passed a firm manufacturing this product changed their

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labels by affixing a "sticker" to them. It read:

CALF'S-FOOT JELLY
THIS ARTICLE IS A COMPOUND OF THE FINEST WINTER CURED CALF'S FOOT AND HEAD JELLY, SUGAR, SPICING, FLAVORING AND THE LIQUOR NAMED WHEN USED. ALL OF THE HIGHEST PURITY.

After October, 1907, new labels were printed, reading:

SHERRY WINE FLAVOR
SMITH & JONES
CALF'S FOOT AND HEAD JELLY
NEW YORK
[Trade Mark]
CAPERS, OLIVES CATSUP — SALAD DRESSING — MINCE MEAT PLUM PUDDING &C.
PACKED AT NEW YORK CITY
FIRST QUALITY — NEW YORK CO., N. Y.
Registered U. S. Patent Office

This same firm puts up two grades of goods, one quality of preserves retailing at $22.50 per dozen quarts, the other at $12.

What accounts for the difference?

The new label explains. It reads:

EMPIRE PACKING CO.
JONES & SMITH. Prop's
STRAWBERRY AND APPLE JAM MADE WITH SUGAR AND CORN SYRUP
PACKED AT NEW YORK NEW YORK CO., N. Y.

Here one has the cheaper ingredients of apple and corn syrup entering into the jam. Hence the difference in price. The label on the more expensive jar is very plain. Here it is:

SMITH & JONES
PRESERVED STRAWBERRIES
NEW YORK
[Trade Mark]
CAPERS, OLIVES CATSUP — SALAD DRESSING — MINCE MEAT PLUM PUDDING &C.
Registered U. S. Patent Office

This means that strawberries and sugar only are used. Now, as a result of the new law, if any other ingredient enters into that preserve, the manufacturers, Smith & Jones, can be held responsible if it is sold outside the State of New York, provided, of course, the jobber or retailer has protected himself with a guarantee from Smith & Jones as to the purity of the article. It is easily seen that the new law protects not only the consumer by giving him the chance to buy what he wants, if he reads labels, but it also protects the retailer from a dishonest manufacturer, who always knows what his goods are. Another change is in the use of fictitious names, which hereafter must be employed only as brands. Trade names that are not the genuine names of packers must be obliterated on the cans. According to the new law syrups that are compounds of maple and cane syrup can no longer be sold as maple syrup. If there is fifty per cent of maple syrup in the compound, it may be labeled maple and cane; if less, then the label must read cane and maple. If very little maple is used, then it must read cane syrup flavored with maple. If it is a compound of cane syrup and corn syrup, that, too, must be stated on the label. Food bearing a geographical name must really come from the country it purports to come from, or else it is misbranded. Maine corn must be packed in Maine, Java coffee must come from the island of Java, Brazil coffee from Brazil. Another regulation on coffee is of interest. It has been stated that many roasters of coffee use a finish composed of harmless ingredients to make up for the loss in weight incidental to the roasting process. This finish, the statement continues, is made up of lemon juice, flaxseed, gelatine, bicarbonate of soda, and lime-water. The Department of Agriculture ruled that coffee treated in the above manner should be labeled as

COATED WITH LEMON JUICE, FLAXSEED, GELATIN, BICARBONATE OF SODA, AND LIME WATER

As the food law makes specific mention of coating, powdering, polishing, coloring, or staining, whereby damage or inferiority is concealed, it is clear why the coffee must be so labeled if the law is obeyed.

In the same way the polishing of rice with glucose and talc, or paraffin and rice starch, must be indicated on the label. All rice so treated must be plainly marked. Again, in the labeling of caramels the label must tell the truth. Caramels marked "milk caramels" are misbranded if they contain no milk; likewise

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"whipped cream caramels" if they contain no cream; also "peaches and cream caramels" when they contain neither peaches nor cream. If, in the making of chocolate sticks, cocoanut oil is employed in place of cocoa butter, the candy cannot be labeled chocolate, as it is an imitation of chocolate. The flavoring extracts entering into inter-State commerce have all been relabeled. Only extracts made from the vanilla bean can now be called vanilla extracts. All others must be labeled vanilla substitute, or artificial vanilla. The effect of this has been to drive from the market the five-cent bottles of flavoring extracts. If preparations from the synthetic fruit syrups enter into inter-State commerce, they must be labeled "artificial pineapple," "strawberry," etc. The consumers who inspect labels and are particular about their purchases now often refuse to buy the syrups so labeled.

Many consumers are under a misapprehension as to what glucose is made from. Not knowing that it is a wholesome product of corn, some consumers have even confounded it with glue. A shrewd man of business, but lacking somewhat in intelligence, refused to invest money in a glucose company. He said, "I'm not putting my money in glue."

One of the changes brought about by the new law is the complete revolutionizing of the process of making "corn syrup," or glucose. Formerly the product was pure white. Analyses of candies, molasses, etc., in which corn syrup was an ingredient sometimes showed the presence of sulphurous acid or sulphites in these foods, due to the sulphurous acid used to bleach the corn syrup. At an expense of about a million dollars the firm making the corn syrup has installed new machinery in all its plants, and is to-day turning out a product free from sulphurous acid and a pale yellow in color. "But," said the manager of the firm, "it will not make white candy." As an illustration of the peculiar properties of this product, one of the members of a well-known firm of food manufacturers took up a quart jar of heavy preserves put up with granulated sugar, and said: "The action of sugar on fruit is to contract the fruit; the action of glucose is to swell it. Now, if to this quart jar of heavy preserves is added about a half-pint of glucose, what happens? Why, the glucose dissolves the crystallized sugar, swells it out as water does a sponge, and in place of one quart of heavy preserve one has two quarts of a thin, floating preserve." That is one reason why foods sweetened with corn syrup can be sold for less money than foods sweetened with cane sugar.

As in foods, so in drugs and medicines, the label must indicate what proportion of alcohol is in the drug, or of morphine, cocaine, heroin, chloroform, chloral, etc., and all their derivatives.

Great changes, too, are already seen in the labeling of whisky and of wines. Other changes wrought by the new law appear in the regulations as to chemical preservatives. Common salt, sugar, wood smoke, potable distilled liquors, vinegar, and condiments may be used. Saltpeter is allowed, pending investigations. Harmful preservatives may be employed only externally, and they must be of such a character that the food is inedible until they are removed. Only seven coal-tar colors are permitted by the rulings, and these can be employed only under the strictest guarantee as to their non-poisonous qualities.

For this year's output of catsup the manufacturers are allowed one-tenth of one per cent of benzoate of soda, but this must be indicated on the label, and no goods so marked can be sold under the guarantee of the Food and Drugs Act. An enterprising grocer in the West was overheard carefully explaining to a customer that the statement on the catsup as to benzoate of soda was a guarantee of its purity!

The new law is destined to revolutionize other industries besides that of glucose.

The bleaching of nuts, sulphuring of dried fruits and of wine-casks, and the bleaching of the sugar-cane for molasses are all affected by the new law. The amount of sulphur dioxid in the finished product must not exceed 350 milligrams per liter in wines or 350 milligrams per kilogram in other food products. Of

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this not over 70 milligrams must be in a free state. Some of the evaporated apricots examined by the Department of Agriculture showed 2,842 milligrams per kilo, others only 190.[1]

Turning to other changes accomplished by the law, one finds that between June 30, 1906, and July, 1907, new general food laws or sweeping amendments to old laws were passed in thirty-two States. What some of the State food officials think of the new law may be gathered from the following replies sent to the question, "What has been the effect of the Food and Drugs Act in your State?"

Mr. R. M. Allen, Chief of the Food Division of the Kentucky Experiment Station and Secretary of the State and National Food and Dairy Departments, writes: "The National Pure Food Law has had the effect of causing a widespread cleaning up among the manufacturing concerns throughout the country."

Dr. Barnard, Food and Drug Commissioner of Indiana, writes: "The effect of the National food law in Indiana has been remarkable. So far as we know, no goods are now being shipped into the State that are improperly labeled or adulterated. I also believe that no goods are being manufactured within the State for shipment to other States that do not comply with the law."

Commissioner Dunlap, of Ohio, writes: "In some respects the Act has been of much assistance in our State in the enforcement of food and drug laws. The principal reason why it has been of benefit is because of the fear most people have of Uncle Sam."

Professor Fulmer, State Chemist of Washington, writes: "The quality of goods received from other States is undoubtedly better than it was prior to the passage of the Federal law."

Commissioner Emery, of Wisconsin, replies: "The agitation among food purveyors caused by the Federal Pure Food Law has tended to improve the quality of foods shipped into Wisconsin."

Commissioner Foust, of Pennsylvania, writes: "The Act has had a very good effect in forcing manufacturers to comply with its provisions, as well as the rules and regulations adopted regulating its enforcement."

Dr. Hortvet, Chemist of the Food Department of Minnesota, replies: "The general moral effect of the Act is clear, and there is a disposition to work in harmony with the Federal authorities."

Dr. Harrington, Secretary of the Board of Health of Massachusetts, in reply to the question, What has been the effect of the Act? writes: "Little, if any. If any, it has not been observed by those in authority."

Dr. Irion, President of the Board of Health of Louisiana, says: "Manufacturers and dealers are apparently striving in good faith to comply with the law."

Dr. Jenkins, Director of the Connecticut Agricultural Experiment Station, writes: "It has somewhat frightened the wicked, done much to strengthen the moral purpose of the makers of food products, given some value to the labels on their output, and probably loosened the trade in adulterated and misbranded goods. It has stimulated the ingenuity of those whose business it is to 'beat the law.'"

Commissioner Jones, of Illinois, writes: "The effect has been good. The law has been regarded as a success in Illinois."

Commissioner Korner, of Virginia, says: "Beneficial."

Commissioner Ladd, of North Dakota, writes: "It has forced jobbers and manufacturers to label their products truthfully. It has assisted the State officials in bringing to light false statements and adulterations which could not have been well reached under the State law."

Dr. Mitchell, Secretary for the Board of Health in New Jersey, states: "The Act has undoubtedly diminished to a very large extent the shipment into the State of adulterated foods and drugs."

Dr. McPherson, Secretary of the State Board of Food Commissioners of Idaho, replies: "The legislation has been of great benefit to the people of Idaho."

Commissioner Washburn, of Missouri, writes: "It is too early to expect any great effect to be apparent; the cheapest of the concocted foods have, as a rule, disappeared from the market."

[1] Food Inspection Decision 76.

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Dr. Watson, Director of the Laboratory of Hygiene of New Hampshire, states: "The effect of the Act is already manifest in this State in the improved quality of certain classes of goods, but more particularly in the correct labeling of food products."

Commissioner Wheaton, of South Dakota, writes: "The effect of the Act in this State has been very beneficial in apprising the consumers of what they are buying."

Commissioner Wieting, of New York, states: "The effect of the Act has, in my judgment, brought about a condition whereby goods shipped into this State come nearer to being true to the labeling."

The majority of the food officials also agree in denying that the new law is responsible for the increase in the price of foods, which is in line with the advanced cost of labor, of rent, of clothing. "The one exception," says an authority, "is in the articles formerly sold in competition with those that were adulterated or misbranded. These bring their normal prices, while the adulterated ones bring less." Neither is the food law responsible for the increase in the price of milk, which is caused by the agitation for clean milk, milk produced under sanitary conditions and from non-tuberculous cows. This agitation preceded the passage of the food law. One distributer of food products explained the effect of the law in a sentence. "Two years ago," he said, dramatically, waving his hand towards a row of tin cans, "those shelves were filled with corn that nature never made, for they were packed with old dried corn, soaked, then bleached with sulphites, thickened up with starch and sent here. To-day there is not a can of such rubbish in the house."

Such, in brief, is the outline of what the Food and Drugs Act has accomplished, and all this without one test case before the courts, but merely through the silent force of a National law. As an able attorney has expressed it, "The real enforcement of the law lies with the dealers in food products. The great majority welcomed the law and were solicitous to acquaint themselves with the provisions and to comply therewith." It is yet too early to decide as to amending the law. That it should be made stronger and will be made stronger no one can deny.

The guarantee clause should be remodeled, so that no one can be misled into believing that the Government has actually examined an article of food and said, "This is pure." It is the manufacturer who says it, not the Government. If the bleaching of nuts, of fruits, and of sugar-cane can be ruled on, why not the bleaching of flour? It is not the question of the harmfulness of the bleaching process, but the opportunity that the process gives the miller who is disposed to be dishonest. He can bleach an inferior low-grade product until it has the appearance of the best. And it is this ethical question that has been the fundamental inspiration of the pure food movement, as Dr. Wiley has so clearly demonstrated.

Again, the question of food standards should be strongly defined, and the Secretary of Agriculture be urged to secure the enforcement of food standards already adopted or that may hereafter be adopted by the Joint Committees on Standards of the Association of State and National Food and Dairy Departments and the Association of Official Agricultural Chemists. Then, too, there should be co-operation between Federal and State food officials and a harmonizing as far as possible of National and State laws, so that the great food-producing industries of the country may not be hampered as they are to-day by the lack of uniformity in the food laws of the various States.

One of the most important results of the Pure Food Law is the awakening of many consumers to their responsibilities as buyers of food products. They are studying labels and buying foods accordingly. With an intelligent consuming public to purchase goods, the Pure Food Law will in time accomplish its full purpose. Perhaps no better phrase will then be found to describe it than the recent utterance of the manager of one of the most important food firms in the country. "The Pure Food Law," he said, "passed by this Government, is the most important law ever passed by any government."

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INVESTING MONEY

BY GEORGE CAREY

FOURTH PAPER

THE SECURITIES OF PUBLIC SERVICE CORPORATIONS

PUBLIC Service, or, as they are often called, Public Utility Corporations, may be said to include street railways—both urban and interurban—gas, electric light, heat, and power companies, telegraph and telephone companies, and such water companies as are still operated under private control and ownership. The popularity of their securities as investments has vastly increased since the use of electricity was made practicable and profitable, by scientific experiment, for lighting and heating purposes and for motive power. The bonds and stocks of many of these companies have proven exceedingly safe and lucrative investments. Indeed, so enviable a reputation have certain public service bonds achieved that they have been made legal for investment by savings banks and trust funds in several States. Even Massachusetts, whose trust fund statutes are noted for their careful exclusiveness, has admitted a few well-known issues of companies operating within her own limits.

The market for securities of this sort is, as a rule, much narrower than that for the stocks and bonds of the great steam railway companies, although of late many have been listed upon the exchanges of the large cities, and are actively traded in. Certain brokers and banking houses in nearly all large cities confine their attention exclusively to public utility issues. The fact that their market is relatively narrow is due, as may be readily perceived, to the purely local character of the issuing companies, and especially to their comparative novelty in the eyes of many investors. A generation ago such forms of investment were scarcely known to the general investing public.

Strictly speaking, the term Public Service Corporation should, perhaps, be confined to companies that operate within municipal limits, subject to the consent of the municipal government. But such limitation would exclude interurban railways and telegraph and telephone companies. In order to insure profitable business they must secure terminal properties within some center of commercial activity, and this is possible only with the permission of the city or the village government. It follows that the concession of this right to operate within the city's boundaries, and the terms under which such permission is granted, are matters of prime importance to the prospective purchasers of the securities of any public service corporation. Legally, no company may begin construction, not to say actual business, without the consent of the people formally accorded through their official representatives; no rails may be laid, no gas mains or electric conduits sunk.

The right or privilege to do any of these things is called the company's "franchise." Where the incorporators are honest and the city fathers far removed from personal greed—a somewhat Utopian coincidence, unfortunately—this franchise is usually either purchased from the city for a lump sum, or it is ageed that the privilege shall be subjected to an annual tax. Sometimes the contract contains a clause conceding to the city the option of purchasing the property at the end of a stated period for a stipulated sum. In some cases, too, the city loans the incorporators funds to aid in building and equipping the property, and exacts for the use of its loan only a nominal interest charge, in anticipation of greater profits to be derived from eventual ownership. If the franchise is not liberal in its terms, and of long duration, it will be readily

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seen how the value of the company's obligations may be fatally impaired. No one would wish to place his savings with a company whose right to existence is revocable at the whim of a city council. The investor cannot too carefully inform himself concerning the franchise, and, in this connection, upon the record and reputation of the particular city government in question for honest dealings.

The value of the franchise must always be reckoned when one attempts to examine into or to analyze the capital account of any company. Recently action was brought in the courts against one of the greatest gas and electric lighting, heat, and power companies in the world to compel it to reduce the price of gas to consumers. It was claimed that the company had no right to include in its capitalization its franchise at a fixed money valuation. The courts decided that although the franchise was an intangible thing, it was, nevertheless, subject to annual taxation, and might therefore be properly included in capitalization. So much space has been given here to the matter of franchise because it seems to the writer, and history has proved it to be, the rock and base of safety on which the obligations of public service companies rest.

In one of the largest and richest cities of the land the securities of what should be a great and prosperous street railway system have declined to a level inconceivably below their real worth estimated upon actual value of physical property and earning capacity. The trouble is all traceable to the franchises of the various lines forming the consolidated system. Many of these have terminated, or are about to terminate, and no definite understanding has been reached with the city authorities regarding their renewal. There has been a great deal of talk about acquisition of the system by the city, and there exists a strong municipal ownership party. The company, owing to growth of population and consequently increased business, has long been sadly in need of money for extensions, improvements, and new equipment. But none can be borrowed in the present state of chaos. As a result the company has become practically bankrupt in the midst of plenty. Another public service corporation in the same city was not so very long ago in a practically identical situation. After years of disputes and bickerings and legal proceedings, a long-time and liberal franchise was finally granted by the city. Funds were immediately raised without difficulty, and to-day that company's bonds and stocks are regarded as a very high order of investment.

After the investor has satisfied himself regarding the company's franchise, and has ascertained from its past history and annual reports its ability as a profit-earner, it is wise to consider what are the possibilities of competition by new companies. It may be that the company has made terms with the city so favorable to itself as to prevent the granting of franchises to another company, at least for a long period of years. If this is not the case, it frequently happens, particularly where the field of operation is a limited one, that another company may be formed, which the promoters know cannot possibly prove profitable, for the deliberate purpose of forcing the original company to buy it. The writer knows of a small and flourishing city in which this very thing was done a few years ago. An old and prosperous gas and electric light company that had paid dividends on its stock for years and had accumulated a comfortable surplus was reduced to the verge of ruin by being compelled to buy a rival company which had no real reason for being. Investors in both companies suffered great and needless losses. There are, of course, other instances where healthy competition in a wider field conduces to better service, more economical management, and hence greater returns to investors.

Public service corporations issue securities precisely similar, so far as their titles and their relative claims upon a particular property go, to those of the steam railway companies, discussed in a preceding paper. They have preferred and common stock and a great variety of bonds; first and second mortgages, general, consolidated, collateral trust mortgages, equipment bonds and notes, etc.

The clauses in a street railway company's mortgage are in general terms

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not very dissimilar to those of a steam railway indenture. That is, they set forth the facts that the first mortgage bonds of the Blank Electric Traction Company are specifically secured upon a given number of miles of track in the streets of the city of Blank, under a stated franchise privilege extending over a period of years, together with power stations, car barns, other real estate, and sometimes upon certain rolling stock and other equipment. The amount of the mortgage issued is usually equal to only about seventy to eighty per cent of the estimated value of the property and the cost of construction, the remainder having been turned into the property in actual cash. Conservative investment banking houses will refuse to purchase and sell to their customers bonds offered with less margin of safety. This is generally true of all kinds of public utility corporations.

The bonds of gas and electric-lighting and power companies being secured mainly upon power plants, office sites, and branch distributing stations, are in effect the same as ordinary real estate mortgages. With the enhancement of surrounding real estate values in large cities, the market price of such securities must inevitably advance. For, aside from the special privileges their issuing companies possess, the buildings and grounds pledged under the mortgages have an intrinsic worth for other purposes. Thus, in the event of failure of the particular business for the conduct of which the securities have been sold, and the foreclosure of the mortgage, there will nearly always remain enough to redeem at least a portion of the pledge.

In the financing, management, and accounting of steam railways and electric street and interurban railway companies there must in the nature of things be very considerable differences. Peculiar skill and knowledge are required for each, and comparison upon equal terms would be manifestly unfair. The motive powers are unlike; the units of cost in all departments must be different. Steam railways depend for profits upon freight and long hauls. Electric street railways cover distances comparatively short, and pay dividends out of passenger fares, although of late years many interurban companies have conducted a profitable freight business. Largely because of the fact that they are comparatively novel and have been relatively untested, street railway securities are apt to command lower prices in the investment market than do those of steam railways, margins of safety as regards earnings being equal. As a rule, the bonds and stocks of lines confined within the limits of densely populated centers are preferable as investments to those of interurban routes, although this is by no means universally true.

Certain street railway companies have recently suffered, and some are now undergoing, an experience similar to that which befell the steam roads not many years ago. They are being reorganized and put upon a firmer financial basis. Often their financing, building, and equipment have been hurried and experimental, not to say speculative. This is true also of a few electric lighting, heating, and power companies, and even of gas companies, notwithstanding the fact that the operation of the latter began at a very much earlier period.

In many cities the electric railways and the electric lighting, heating, and power companies have been consolidated and brought under one control for purposes of convenience and the lessening of expenses of operation. Bonds issued to effect such combinations frequently cover, by liens which follow the claims of the original mortgages of the independent companies, the properties of all. These are sometimes called blanket mortgages. Again, the public utility corporations of many cities have, during recent years, passed under the control of great operating or "holding" companies, as they are called. The latter issue no bonds, but, having acquired sufficient stock to carry control of an independent company, they sell their own stock to reimburse themselves. The various companies acquired are operated independently, so far as detail goes, under a sort of centralized supervision by the holding company. The North American Company, with offices in New York, which controls many of the public service corporations of St. Louis, Milwaukee, and

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Detroit, besides those of a number of smaller towns, furnishes an illustration of this sort of corporation.

The question of the relative investment value of street railway securities and those of gas and electric companies is one that is both interesting and undetermined. Matters of earnings, franchises, and management being equal, the former may be said to command, as a rule, a wider market and slightly higher prices. Bankers who specialize in either class, of course, contend for the superiority of their favorites. Partisans of street railway securities maintain that transportation is the soul of commerce. People must travel, and must travel quickly and comfortably. Therefore, they declare, economy in street-car fares will be the last resorted to. Experienced traders in bonds and stocks of lighting and heating companies assert, on the other hand, that the latter furnish necessities of daily life that go much closer home than do transportation facilities. People must have light and heat, they say, even though economy compels them to walk to and from work.

The telegraph business of the United States is controlled by two great companies which have covered the land with a network of wires. They have been long established and their securities have been well distributed among investors. So widely are they known and so universal is their service that they may hardly be viewed in the same plane with those of companies of merely local importance. They follow the lines of the great steam railways and the course of the ocean steamers, and the scope of their service is perhaps even more far-reaching. Yet their securities have hardly attained to the enviable position of those known as "gilt-edged" investments.

Until within a very few years practically the entire telephone business of the country lay within the grasp of a single great monopoly. This huge company still controls by far the larger part. But independent companies have sprung up, and some have become prosperous. The telephone business from the standpoint of the conservative investor is yet to be regarded, generally speaking, as in a somewhat experimental stage. The securities of some of the small independent telephone companies must certainly be regarded as of a more or less speculative character. On the other hand, the very existence and growth of these competitors may eventually weaken the position of their powerful rival. With the exception of certain central stations in large cities which may be appraised for their intrinsic worth as real estate, it is somewhat difficult to find and estimate the tangible belongings of either telephone or telegraph companies with relation to the amount of their capitalization. One must depend in a considerable measure upon an earning capacity, either proven or prospective, and in any event likely to be variable. It is by no means intended here to advise the avoidance of all securities of this sort, but merely to suggest the points which should be carefully considered before purchasing.

On the whole, it would seem that the future of public service companies holds out to investors unusual opportunities for safe and profitable investment. The day of the speculator in franchise privileges and of the wrecker of security values is rapidly passing, and the frenzy of over-enthusiastic reformers for foolishly restrictive statutes will also soon subside. The real interests of the investor are to be guarded as never before.

In a succeeding article National, State, City, and Village bonds will be discussed.

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ON THE TRAINING OF PARENTS

BY ERNEST HAMLIN ABBOTT

FOURTH PAPER

PEACE AT A PRICE

ADVICE to wives usually begins with this sort of exhortation: When your husband returns from the office, greet him smilingly; exile from your face the traitorous lines of care, imprison in the silences of your mind the petty vexing trials of the day, dismiss to their own quarters the evidences of housework; your husband's home is his castle; when he takes refuge there in flight from his enemies, the cares of his vocation, do not confront him with your own. We are all familiar with this strain. It sounds well. But, after all, the lord's castle is his lady's battlefield. If she is a very fine lady indeed, she may not have engaged in any personal encounters. If her resources and disposition permit, she may hire mercenaries to do her fighting for her. In that case her battles have been sham battles, and she has no relic of carnage to hide. If, however, she is not one of those who regard one child as a nuisance and two as an intolerable burden, and therefore prefers to conduct the campaign of their training herself, she can hardly be sure of turning nightly the battlefield of that home into the semblance of an impregnable castle. The fact is, any woman who regards motherhood as a vocation quite as worthy of respect as yelling on the Stock Exchange (and that I believe is a very, very respectable vocation indeed) will find it a serious drain on her physical and nervous resources.

However much a woman may court martyrdom, I never heard of one who deliberately invited vexation of spirit. She may find a genuine happiness in the weariness she has incurred for the sake of some great object; but she finds no happiness in the annoyances she encounters purposelessly. Now, it is just these vexations, these annoyances, which it is a part of her vocation to avoid. So far from being an incident of motherhood, they are an impediment.

Most of these annoyances, these vexations, with which a mother has to contend come from a maladjustment between her children and their environment. Quarrels among themselves, irritability and disobedience toward her, impositions upon the servants, pertness with their elders, insubordination toward their teachers, altercations with their playmates, and friction with the neighbors—it is affairs of these sorts that bray a woman's nerves and rack her mind. No woman can long endure these things. There are not many courses open to her. She can die, or she can rid herself of her children by consigning them to servants who are paid for accepting her responsibility. In either case she no longer concerns us. Let us suppose, however, that she remains a mother. Then the only course that she can pursue is to attempt some mode of adjustment.

There are two ways in which she can act. She can undertake either to adjust her children to their environment, or to adjust their environment to them. Almost every mother adopts either one way or the other within the first two months of her first baby's life. The young lord of creation puts the problem squarely before her: Am I to begin my reign now—and I warn you it will be a case of whimsical autocracy—or must I take my place in the order of this household? If his mother is a washerwoman, he gets no answer; she goes about her washing and he finds his place without much remonstrance. The children of the poor are blessed with mothers who have this problem settled for them by the gaunt hand of necessity. If, however, this lordling has been born in the purple, even of very light shade, he has a good chance of seizing the scepter at the very first

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grasp. He certainly will seize it and wield it relentlessly if his mother decides to do the easiest thing. At the beginning and for some time it is easier to conform the household to the baby than the baby to the household. It is easier because strictly at the beginning it is necessary. Even the household of the washerwoman is swerved for a few days out of its regular course; but when the wash comes in again, the household is swerved back. The trouble comes in those families where the mother's will has to take the place of somebody else's wash. Of course there are cases which cannot be considered normal. The newcomer is puny and needs the constant attention that every invalid requires; or the mother's strength has been sapped, and she must, for everybody's sake, do the easiest thing. In such cases there is no choice. Ordinarily, however, the issue is not long postponed. The trained nurse, if there is one, can have a good deal to do in deciding it. Probably it will be most distinctly raised over a question of feeding. The foundation of absolute monarchy within many a plain American home has been laid by allowing the diminutive heir apparent to engage in midnight feasting when every consideration of orderliness commanded sleep. It is on such an occasion that a man, if he has any chivalry in him, will sustain his wife's good resolution. If he chooses to be anything more to his household than a purveyor, he will not have to wait long to make good his determination.

The difference between a household adjusted to a child and a child adjusted to a household is the difference between unstable and stable equilibrium. Quietness, peace, and an aspect of repose may be found in both cases; but in the one case every new movement threatens an upset.

There are two kinds of households, the adjustable and the unadjustable. A child, let us say, wakes in the morning. If he is accustomed to an adjustable household, there is an end of sleep for those who have the care of him. For the sake of peace to the others some one has to keep him quietly amused until the time of rising. That some one, we all can guess, is the mother. At breakfast it is the child that is first served, and when he is finished with eating it is his new demands that interrupt the meal. The mother does her household tasks under the child's supervision. In order to avoid the necessity of leaving them to rush upon every demand to the nursery, she manages to have him in the room with her. Tethering him to the leg of a table, barricading him behind chairs, occupying his mind now with one bauble, now with another, she succeeds, with the exercise of an acquired versatility, in securing for him safety from harm, for the furniture measurable immunity from damage, and for herself a comparatively noiseless morning. When the time for his nap arrives, she, as the available member of the household, leaves everything else and puts him to sleep. After he wakes and is dressed, a caller arrives. For an instant forgetful, she starts to leave the young ruler. A wail recalls her. A gurgle of satisfaction rewards her for taking him in her arms. The visitor is now a part of the household and must be properly adjusted. At the sight of the caller the baby makes violent protest. Then comes the period of coaxing, unsatisfactory to the child, troublesome to the mother, and disconcerting to the guest. Irreconcilable, the youngster is handed over to some one for the nonce, and the visitor concludes the call and departs to the accompaniment of mourning. The despot is easily restored to good humor as soon as he sees again his favorite subject. The one annoying episode of the day is easily set down against the account, not of the child, not of his mother, but of the caller. "That black gown she wore" many a time does duty as an explanation for what is really the product of an adjustable household. Aside from the more immediate and obvious disadvantages of the adjustable household, there is this: that it hardly fits the child for living in an unadjustable world.

The child who greets the morning in an unadjustable household finds at hand enough to amuse him until it is time for his bath. His mother has not led him to expect anything else. I remember a

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little fellow whom I used to see a few years ago. Of delicate organism, decidedly high-strung, very sensitive to sound and motion, he needed as much attention as any well baby ever did. Regularly every morning, after giving him his breakfast and getting him ready for the day, his mother took him to the nursery, left him on the padded floor, gave him his few blocks, and left him to his devices. She was free to go downstairs then about her work. She was not beyond earshot. When the sun was high, she wrapped him up well, put him in his carriage, and, wheeling him out on the porch, left him again alone. In the afternoon the process was reversed; first the sunny porch, then the quiet nursery. Times for play with him came to an end according to her judgment, not his. Because she loved him and understood her vocation as mother, she established in this nervous child the habit of encountering the world with placidity. This is the way of the mother who determines that her household shall be unadjustable.

There are those who regard childhood as a period when the individual becomes, to use Stevenson's phrase, "well armored for this world." It is this conception of childhood as a preparation for after-life that underlies Huxley's essay on liberal education. There are others who would say, with a recent writer, that childhood is not to be regarded as a preparation for youth that in turn becomes a preparation for manhood, but rather is to be made "beautiful and glorious in and for itself, not a vestibule to a vestibule to a vestibule." Whichever of these two views we take, we shall find, I think, that the only way of escape from disorder and confusion is not by adjusting the child's environment to him, but by adjusting him to his environment.

The one unescapable part of our children's environment is—ourselves. Over them we are always impending. At inconvenient times we rise in their way and impede their most absorbing occupations. On their excursions into the wilds of fancy it is we who obtrude and with Philistine complacency drive them back into the gross world of wash-basins and table manners. Three small boys are busy blasting. One is a workman; a second is the fuse; the third is the hole and is about to explode for the sixth time. Who interrupts with some trivial but insistent remark about less noise or clean clothes? One of us. And the worst of it is that we who are so troublesomely recurrent, and who are their source of supplies, seem to be incapable of appreciating the delights of becoming at will a trolley-car, an alligator, a goblin, or a hole in the ground. That is the sort of environment we are; and if we are going to adjust our children to it we ought to understand how knurly it is. When we understand that, we shall perhaps see the importance of giving our children a chance to explode without being flung repeatedly against our prosy protuberances. Sometimes we can manage that by simply giving them room for their own Arcady. (And it is not our business to insist that their Arcady be our sort.) Sometimes it will be necessary to manage this otherwise We may, for instance, live in a flat. In that case we may actually have to exercise some imagination and suggest to them an occupation which will keep them from a too rasping contact with us. If we are to adjust our children to the world as it is, we must not be too often in their way. The first requisite, then, for peace is a reasonable degree of non-interference.

Interference, however, we cannot always avoid. Then the question becomes one of interfering without friction. Any one can give commands to a child, or instruct him after a fashion, or punish him; but to exercise authority over a child and at the same time keep on good terms with him, that is an art in which we are not all equally adept. But it is an art we must master if we are to be free of unnecessary annoyance and a great deal of fruitless pother. We cannot be on good terms with a healthy child except on the basis of justice. That is one reason why an altercation with a child is a sign of failure in discipline: it is not sportsmanlike. It lacks the prime element of justice, an equal chance for each opponent. When we take a child for an antagonist, we do not enter a square fight; we have him at an unfair advantage. He knows it as well as we, and that is why, even if we win—

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as win we ought with size and strength and wit on our side—our victory is an inglorious failure. When he succumbs in the struggle, he has learned only one thing—that he must enlarge his resources. A small boy leaves his sled in the front hall. He is ordered to remove it and he refuses. Then comes the tussle. Rather than go to bed he finally complies. The next time he awaits the approach of a visitor. This time he leaves his sled in the front hall and flees. He has learned his lesson—to pick the place and moment for battle when the enemy is at a disadvantage. The visitor, serenely unconscious of the fact, has diverted the enemy. The sled is whisked out of sight. No penalty now inflicted on the boy can be to him other than the manifestation of resentment and chagrin on the part of an outwitted adversary. In such a case what does justice suggest? There is the voice of one in authority.

"Your sled is in the front hall; put it away."

"But I don't want to. I'm playing."

The affair seems to be at an end. There is no insistence; there are no threats.

A day later. "Mamma! Mamma! Where's my sled?"

"Did you look in its place?"

"Yes, and it isn't there."

"Where did you leave it?"

"I don't know."

"Think."

(With shamed face) "I guess in the front hall."

"You had better look in the front hall, then."

"It isn't there."

"Did you expect to find it there?"

"No-o."

There is no ground for altercation here. Perhaps there may be need for explanation. The loss of a day's coasting in this case may be actually a severer punishment than the threatened hours in bed in the other case, but it comes in the course of justice and the boy knows it. Nobody has won a victory, because there has been no struggle; but somebody has learned a lesson. And through it all the boy remains on good terms with his environment. That is because his relation to his environment is essentially just.

Of course it would never do for a child to live in too just a world; his awakening upon entrance into the world that we grown folks have made for ourselves would be cruelly rude. He must have ample chance to learn how to meet injustice. Happily, such chance will frequently come his way without any solicitude on our part. One can discern something almost purposeful in the fact that the sense of justice is no part of the parental instinct. Indeed, it seems as if it had been made especially difficult for grown people to deal justly with children. For one thing, in order to be just with a child one must be prepared to believe anything, no matter how preposterous. Once on a time a little girl was going down stairs. In her arms she held a precious doll. She knew that it was a prized family possession. To her consternation she suddenly felt it leave her hold, and in an instant she saw it lying broken upon the stairs. When she was questioned by her mother, she announced simply that the doll had jumped from her arms. In spite of all that her mother said to her on the evil of willful untruth, she persisted in her story. Whether she was punished I do not know; but if she was, it was not because of an accident, but because of a falsehood. In any case, she suffered the indignity of being disbelieved. For a long time the feeling of injustice rankled in her. It was not until she had grown old enough to learn that a doll cannot leap that she relinquished her faith in the statement which had been treated by her mother as a lie. A dash of credulity would have established a good understanding with that child; but that was too much to expect. It is not easy to be credulous at the right times. That is one reason why we need never take pains lest we be too just with our children.

With the best of intentions, the most competent of us will now and then lapse into deeds of injustice. If we discovered them all, we should lead uneasy lives. A kind Providence, however, keeps us oblivious of most of them; and our children are slow in learning to preserve a grudge. When one of us, however, discovers that he has been unjust toward his child, what does he do? That depends on his standards. If his ambition

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is to be omniscient and infallible, he keeps the discovery to himself, and, if he corrects the injustice, manages by some subterfuge to make the correction, not an act of justice, but an act of grace. His policy might be epitomized in Jowett's motto for public men: with children his practice is, "Never retract, never explain; get it done, and let them howl." For one who does not care to pay the price of courage and self-respect, this rule can be made to work very well. One whose ambition, however, is to be authoritative with children will value sincerity with them as a principle and not as an expedient. Karl has apparently been guilty of willful disobedience; he has done something he was told not to do. The punishment which regularly follows rebellion is announced. It then transpires that what seemed disobedience was really misunderstanding. What can be done? Since the maternal court does not crave infallibility, the error in sentence is acknowledged. So far from impairing confidence in the court, this proceeding actually tends to buttress it. The next time an adverse judgment is declared and sentence is inflicted, the culprit, even if he believes himself guiltless, will, if he thinks about it at all, suspect that the judge is attempting, not to preserve her dignity, but honestly to administer justice. A child can pay his parents no greater honor than by protesting, in the belief that he will be heard, that a threatened punishment would be unfair.

Even that mother who finds other occupations more dignified and gratifying than that of motherhood cannot wholly escape the necessity of determining whether the ground of her dealings with her children shall be justice or something else. In delegating responsibility to servants she must decide whether she will delegate authority also. The woman who puts her children in the charge of a hired maid and then declares, "I will never require a child of mine to obey a servant," deliberately chooses to be unjust to her children. That she is also unjust to the servant is not so grave a matter. The servant can, if she wishes, find another mistress; but the child is compelled to be content as he can with that mother. Such a woman is usually quite powerless to secure obedience toward herself. When her daughters are grown, she wonders why they do not become her friends; when her sons are grown, she wonders why they exhibit no desire for her companionship.

The only footing for comradeship is fair dealing. Even a sense of humor, essential as that is, will not take its place. Who would be a comrade with his children must first be just with them.

THE LARGE HEART AND THE SHRUNKEN PURSE

BY JEAN DWIGHT FRANKLIN

WILL you listen to the Legend of the Maiden with the Large Heart and the Shrunken Purse, for there are many who may profit by it if they do but give heed to it?

There was once a Maiden whose Heart was so large that it was fit to burst, but whose Purse seemed only to shrivel and shrink as it lost itself in her pocket. Whereupon this Maiden sighed and wept and loudly did protest to Heaven.

"God above," she cried, almost with reproach, "why didst thou give me so large a Heart, with so great a desire for giving, and at the same time cause my Purse to shrink and shrink each day the smaller!"

Whereupon the Voice replied:

"Go, cast thy shriveled Purse among the bushes in thy Garden, and go out thyself into the highways, and thou shalt find service for thy hands to do that requireth not the aid of gold or silver."

And the Maiden did as the Voice

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had commanded, and she cast away her Purse with its few bits of worthless silver into her flowerless Garden, and went out herself upon the highways, empty-handed but with arms and soul outstretched to succor and her heart open to the sunshine.

And she realized, as never before, that the walls of the Castle within which she had dwelt and sighed for gold with which to do great deeds had become damp and musty, and she drank in great draughts of sunshine, and her soul was refreshed.

Now there came a Woman toiling up the hill, carrying a fretful child. The way had been long and the child was burdensome, and the hill above was steep, and her strength failed. And the Maiden of the Great Heart ran down to meet her, and she carried the child to the summit, and set a bench in the shade for the weary woman, and she gave the child to drink of clear, cold water from the spring.

And they two passed on refreshed. And there followed an aged Pilgrim who was footsore, and to him she gave a basin of soft water, and bound up his feet with ointment and strong cloths for sandals, and he passed on blessing her and calling on Heaven to remember her kindness "against the Day."

And as the sun was at its height, the Maiden looked down the road into the valley along which a little procession wended its way sadly to God's acre on the hill, and she knew that they were bearing the Child of the Carpenter to its last resting-place.

And she stooped and gathered daisies and daisies till her hands were filled, and wild roses and branches of blossoming elder till her arms could hold no more; and she hastened to the little new-made grave on the mountain-slope, and lined it, and covered all the ground with God's flowers, so that even the pangs of parting were softened.

And the Maiden of the Large Heart put her arm tenderly about the Peasant Mother till there was at last no Castle and no Hut—but only a little grave between them; and the heart of the Peasant Mother was comforted.

And as the Maiden sought her Castle again, and entered her gate, lo! there crouched one beside it who had fallen, crushed beneath the sorrow and remorse of her sin, against whom every one's hand was raised, and to whom no door was open. Her head was bowed, she spake no word, but the loneliness of her despair looked out from her piteous eyes as she raised them at last, and the Great Heart of the Maiden was torn open, and she stretched out her hands to the Fallen One and cried:

"What am I that I should look down upon thee, whom Our Lord tenderly forgave long years ago! I, who until this very morn, living within the sheltered walls of my heartless Castle, was not so much as worthy to touch the hem of His garment, which thy contrite lips have kissed!"

And she took the Fallen One in, and set before her food, and gave her a task to do; and the Fallen One lifted her head, and once more she saw before her the clean road of pure living, and her weakness seemed to leave her—and the work of her hands eased the pain at her heart, and she felt God's love come back to her again.

And the night fell.

Now when it was morning the Maiden arose even before the sun was well up, so eager was she to begin another new bright day; and as she threw open the shutters she saw her Garden, which had been to her one of flowerless shrubs and wasted opportunities, blossoming with roses. And wherever a bit of silver had fallen from the shriveled, shrunken Purse which she had cast into its midst, lo! there had sprung up a pure White Lily of Loving Service.

And she knew then that the Royal Gardener had been at work in the night and had touched her Garden into Eternal Bloom. And the Voice said: "Sing!" And she said: "What shall I sing?"

And then of a sudden the Voice became her own, and her heart and life seemed full of music, till the Castle walls resounded with the echo of her song—

"Hands that ope but to receive
Empty close—they only give
Richly who can richly live."

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NEW PHASES OF THE FAR EAST

BY JAMES S. GALE

IN spite of Kipling's line, "Never the twain shall meet," the East and West are drawing together for weal or woe these days as never in the history of the world before us. Korea, jostled rudely out of her hermitage, bumped hither and thither, scared by all manner of war fury and peace negotiation, is awaking—is trying on the Western woman's hat, the dress, the veil, the tight waist, the pointed shoe. Alas! all manner of outlandish costumes pass and repass us on the street, while the gentle East, with its bright color and its own artistic instinct, is receding into the shadows forever and forever. Here goes a long white coat topped with a Western hat; here a pair of coarse woolen stockings and cowhide shoes protrude from underneath a sky-blue tinted roundabout. There a Western muffler winds round the man's neck as though it would hang him. Yonder a pair of tight tweed trousers are married to a loose silken jacket.

Korean gentlemen who have been abroad dress neatly and well, according to the Western fashion; but few of those who go by us have ever been outside the Hermit Kingdom. and the dress they affect is evolved from their own beclouded consciousness.

Carlyle wrote his book on clothes, but he never imagined all that clothes could mean. If he lived in the East these days, a vastly more striking series of subjects would suggest themselves to him. Let us be thankful that he is asleep and not here, for the outrage in color and custom, and what not, would rack his old nervous system worse far than the small dog that hacked and snarled and snapped the night through outside his dormer-window. Korea is all at sea as to the cut of dress and color, She has let go from her ancient moorings, and is adrift whitherward. The net result will be. however, a nearer approach to the West with its conventional fiber and cut.

These are days of royal progresses and of palace uncoverings. Real Oriental monarchs sit far back behind a succession of massive gates that seldom creak open; but now almost every day we have an imperial outing, Emperor and Empress riding up the street in an open carriage drawn by black horses with Western blood in their veins. His Imperial Majesty wears a Western suit of uniform, with gold lace trimming and epaulets. We have an Emperor, a retired great-Emperor, an Empress sixteen years old, and a Prince Imperial of ten.

A day or two ago the writer saw the abdicated Emperor returning from a visit to his ancestral tablets. The order of procession was much the same as that of the reigning monarch—a troop of Japanese lancers riding ahead, each bearing a flag on his lance-shaft, followed by an open carriage with a minister of state, another carriage with some of the princes royal, then his retired Majesty riding with an old friend sitting by him. He had on a pair of Western colored glasses, through which the world looked blue and cold. He seemed but little interested in the way the business wagged. It was his world once, now gone, and that forever. He is retired comfortably, well clothed and fed, but the reins of state are in other hands; the driver's whip also, with the power to issue orders of gee and haw. The retired Emperor's condition to-day is the result of most unfortunate circumstances. For thirty years past he has persistently had the wrong man at his elbow, with the result that he has always gone the wrong way, and finally tangled himself up in this cul-de-sac.

The reigning Emperor seems to perform his part satisfactorily, and is little noticed or cared for. But the Crown Prince is the hope of the nation—a fine little boy, who does the grown man's part with no end of dignity and patience. He presides at all sorts of functions, though only ten years of age. The other day it was the Seoul Young Men's Christian Association that was his care, he to

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lay the corner-stone. On the main street the large brick building, half up, bound round in red bunting, awaits his arrival. Sharp on the hour he comes, he and Prince Ito. Up the improvised stairway, with sword at side, dressed in khaki brown, to the platform he goes, where he takes his seat. After the opening prayer, and music by the band, the stone is lowered; the little prince touches it with the silver trowel and inquires, "What shall I say?" "Well and truly laid."

"Well and truly laid!" repeats the soft voice.

Then Prince Ito lays the one across the way and makes a speech in Japanese.

The little Prince, ten years old, cannot be expected to speak, but would he write the date 1907? *Il-chun ku-paik chil-yun*, in large Chinese characters? Yes! He'd be glad to try.

Brushes are hurriedly produced. Prince Ito chooses one, softens it in his teeth and on the hand, as they do in the East; the ink is rubbed on the ink-stone, all is ready, and the sheet of paper, some three feet long, is stretched across the table.

The little hand takes the brush, straight across goes the stroke, well done—one; a dot and a cross—thousand; a sharp kick to the left, a sweep upward to the right, and a half-circle—nine; a stroke, a collar, and a picture of the sun—hundred; a "t" shaped character—seven; one dot, one point, and three strokes on a sign-post, and we have—year: one thousand nine hundred seventh year. It is held up to the assembled company and there is great applause. He has done his tenth year of study high honor in such strong, clear, well-formed strokes. He made a gift of $5,000 as well, and then rode off in his carriage. This is the lad on whom all hopes depend.

The whole ceremony, lasting an hour, must have wearied him, but there was no sign of it on his face or in his manner. Only once, when he caught the eye of a Western lad of about his own age near the platform, did a smile gather and pass that had nothing to do with the programme. It was a wireless message to one of his own kind, despatcher and receiver being tuned alike. It was new in the history of the Far East to have a Prince Imperial lay the corner-stone of a Young Men's Christian Association building.

The ideals of the East are fast changing; changing with every day that rolls past us. In days gone by those of Japan were the *samurai* and the sword; to-day they are the battle-ship and the man back of the big gun. With China it was the *sycee* and the brass coin with the hole through it; to-day it is the silver dollar with the dragon on the face of it. With Korea it used to be the pen, the long stroke, the wave, the kick; to-day it seems to be the flintlock, the repeating rifle, the bludgeon, anything that will knock a man's brains out or run him through. The whole country is ablaze with so called *eui-pyung* (righteous soldiers). Their professed object is to protest against Japanese rule and to free the land from it. The net result of their campaign is the impoverishment of their own people and the murder of every Japanese straggler that they can pick up.

As a sample I take to-day's paper; it reads: Madol (twenty miles east of Seoul), December 7, Company fifty-one of the Japanese fought with one hundred and fifty rebels (Eui-pyung) and drove them off. Suwon (twenty miles south of Seoul), December 2, Eui-pyung entered the town, robbed, plundered, and made off toward Namyang. Idong (twenty-five miles southeast of Seoul), December 4, Eui-pyung entered and carried off the two chief men, Hong and Na. Pukchung (three hundred and seventy miles north of Seoul), December 4, after much effort on the part of government troops, the Eui-pyung have been dispersed. Chechun (one hundred miles south of Seoul), December 2, three hundred Eui-pyung were followed, brought to a fight, and thirteen killed. Changyim (seventy miles south of Seoul), December 1, fifty Eui-pyung were encountered, and in the fight six were killed. Eumsung (thirty miles southeast of Seoul), December 4, an attack was made on the Eui-pyung, two were killed and five wounded, etc.

All the while every Japanese wayfarer is marked and followed and done to death.

The Eui-pyung are everywhere. In

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the twinkling of an eye they gather, they separate. To-day five hundred are here, to-morrow no one knows where they have been spirited away to. Seoul and the larger cities alone are safe from their attack. With the kindly rule of Prince Ito we hope for order, but the task before the government grows daily more formidable.

The East is rapidly absorbing our gospel of the battle-ship, the repeating rifle, hand grenades, bombs, floating mines, dynamite, lyddite, melinite, so that the man who a few years ago talked of *eui* (righteousness), and *pyung-wha* (peace), and *pok* (happiness), repeats this list of names over and over as the old Buddhist used to say his "Na-moo-a-me-ta-pool."

Seoul, Korea.

Comment on Current Books

National Problems

The study of the inception of present-day problems in our National life forms a great part of Professor Davis R. Dewey's contribution to the "American Nation" serial history of the United States,[1] which he carries from the first election of President Cleveland to the beginning of the McKinley Administration. Wisely enough, Professor Dewey refrains from attempting to discuss men and measures with any degree of finality, his aim rather being to make clear the great commercial and industrial development and the profound social and economic movements and changes that occurred during the period. For this he is admirably equipped by his long training as an investigator of economic and financial questions; and after reading his chapters on organized labor, the trusts, the tariff, the silver struggle, and the National supervision of railways, the student cannot fail to have a clearer idea, not only of the situation as it was ten and twenty years ago, but of the situation as it now is. In this respect greatest value attaches to Professor Dewey's account of the beginnings of the trust movement, and of the movement for more effective control of the transportation facilities of the country, both of which are distinctly live issues to-day. His handling of the strictly political occurrences of the twelve years is scarcely so successful, and makes at times rather arid reading; but in part, at any rate, this is doubtless due to the limitations incidental to writing of events and policies that are still too recent for the historian to interpret definitively.

The Mexico of To-Day

Mexico is not an easy country to know. It is still less easy to describe. But it has lately been newly revealed to us. First, by the accounts of the recent official visit to Mexico of Mr. Elihu Root, Secretary of State. Mr. Root was received everywhere with great appreciation and hospitality. The Mexican Government's response to his message of respect and good will was hearty and, we believe, entirely sincere. Secondly, Mexico has been revealed to us in welcome detail by two recently published works. Not only is their information graphically set forth, but from both we gain a comprehension of the more intimate relations which ought to exist between Mexico and our own country. Indeed, more intimate relations now exist than are realized by the average man. Most people are quite aware of the fact that we have a common boundary of over 1,500 miles, and that some Americans are residing temporarily in Mexico, attracted thither by their own investments or by the care of large mining and transportation interests in which American capital is largely represented. They do not, however, realize that while many thousands of Mexicans reside upon our side of the line, tens of thousands of Americans reside in Mexico, and that our investments there amount to no less than $750,000,000. As an aid to promoters, industrialists, and investors generally, Mr. Martin's volumes[1] have special value. He is frankly an optimist as regards Mexican financial, industrial, and commercial conditions, and their attraction to foreign investors, and he tells us in great detail about those conditions. He is an Englishman. Mr. Winter is an American. The Englishman's book reads almost as if written by a "promoter;" the American's[2] seems more conservative. Both writers inform us as to Mexican history, government, labor conditions, education and the arts, mines, transportation, and commerce. In particular, Mr. Martin devotes a large part of his work to a

[1] American Nation: National Problems. Vol. XXIV. By Davis R. Dewey, Ph.D. Harper & Brothers, New York. $2. net.

[1] Mexico of the Twentieth Century. By Percy F. Martin, F.R.G.S. In 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $8.50, net.

[2] Mexico and Her People of To-Day. By Nevin O. Winter. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. $3.

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description of the industries and commerce of the various States, giving a chapter to each of them. His book apparently would "discount" the value of what doubtless is a fabulously rich land. The arrangement of his material seems hardly so systematic as Mr. Winter's, but both volumes are veritable treasure-houses of information. Mr. Winter's book, with less detail of description, is, in general, a book to appeal rather to the average citizen and to the average traveler than to one who wishes to know more especially about economics and commerce. His book is especially to be recommended for its account of scenery and for its delineation of Mexican customs and character. Both writers have an attractive style, that of Mr. Martin being especially vivacious. For instance, in speaking of us Americans, here is his British tribute:

> The clean-cut, trim-built, stern-faced young American is a familiar sight nowadays in all parts of the world. I have met him in Japan, in Australia, in South and Central America, in the British, German, and Dutch colonies, and occupying positions of responsibility and trust in his own new oversea possessions. Always one notices the same inflexible purpose, the noble earnestness, the indomitable will to succeed. It is as if he took Fortune by the throat, exclaiming: "No, you shall not avoid me! I *will* have you hear me! You shall yield me of your treasures, you shall recognize my worth. Do you heed me?" And Fortune is caught by the sheer audacity of the pursuer.

The Christ That Is to Be

The author of this book[1] in his preface gives the reader fair and frank warning: "This book is only a series of successive efforts to think what the Gospel of Jesus really is. Each line of thought is unfinished, and there is very much in what is said that in a mature work would be more carefully guarded from misconstruction." We do not think the danger of misconstruction is very great; but the difficulty of stating in a paragraph the central thought of the book is well-nigh insuperable. Since the connecting link between the fragments is not clear in the writer's mind, the critic cannot be blamed for not discovering it. Portions of the discussion are very real; portions are "in the air." There is rather too much of "we must believe," "we must think," "we can well imagine," to be quite satisfactory to one who is skeptical respecting all purely *a priori* theology, and who wants facts rather than hypotheses, or hypotheses only to explain previously established facts. In the main, however, the book might perhaps be characterized as an exaltation of faith or of the power of the spirit over nature and life. "The Christ that is to be" is a Christ who in his Church—not the formal organization, but the body of his disciples and followers—will be able through their corporate faith to achieve over nature, over the body in the cure of disease, and over society in moral reform, results of which at present it scarcely dreams. If the book will to the non-mystical seem at points visionary, if to the conservative thinker some of its visions require more support than they receive from any evidence as yet accumulated, the visions are inspiring not only to hope but also to endeavor, and so are in the main healthy. The author disavows any first-hand acquaintance with Christian Science, and he distinctly recognizes the reality of both moral and physical evil; but he may be said to be a hopeful believer in the real power of spiritual and psychological treatment in many and perhaps eventually in all diseases.

[1] Christ That Is to Be. By the Author of "Pro Christo et Ecclesia." The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.

The Art of William Blake

William Blake seems to be the great conundrum in art. He has been variously defined, more especially in the studies by Dr. Garnett, Mr. Symons, and Mr. Swinburne. Now we have Miss Cary's definition and appreciation in a superbly published and illustrated volume.[1] But even her glowing periods will hardly persuade all her readers that "no one has more clearly understood the relation between a decorative design and the space it is to fill," that "not even Botticelli so powerfully conveys the sense of irresistible movement," certainly not that no one has more fervently experienced than did Blake "the sense of the unseen world or been able more definitely to translate this sense into visual images." Miss Cary considers Blake's art as shown in his sketch-book, his water-colors, and his painted books. Indeed, she might have entitled her work "William Blake as Illustrator." Her text is woven about the fifty illustrations given in the book of Blake's drawings and water-colors, some of these being in the possession of the Boston Museum of the Fine Arts. To the general reader and, we think, to many a technician, Miss Cary's text may seem to be unduly emphatic as to the importance of drawing as the true essence of great art. Even if all her emphasis were appropriate, Blake's drawing would not be so interesting as that of some other men—that of Ingres, for instance. For Blake's style of drawing was apparently over-influenced by the early Italian masters; in Ingres, on the other hand, there is not only clean and wholesome draughtsmanship, but decided individuality. Hence, if we must subordinate color to everything, Miss Cary's choice of subject would seem to be not quite the happiest.

[1] The Art of William Blake. By Elisabeth Luther Cary. Moffat, Yard & Co., New York. $3.50, net.

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The peculiar thing about Blake, however, is that, while in the best masters' drawing there is always some suggestion of color, in Blake's there is hardly any color-suggestion. Thus he is, to many men, a cold, dry artist, and to some an abnormal and unbalanced one.

Sir Henry Raeburn

Though Scotland's pride, Sir Henry Raeburn, died so late as 1823, one associates him with Reynolds and Romney, who died much earlier. Unfortunately, we know but little of Raeburn's personal history, hence Mr. Clouston's essay [1] is specially interesting on the personal side. On the critical side Mr. Clouston is frankly an enthusiast. If in composition and the decorative treatment of groups he admits Raeburn to be the inferior of Gainsborough and Reynolds—and he certainly was—Mr. Clouston stoutly maintains that the Scot could put a single figure on the canvas in a way that leaves nothing to be desired. And it was an individual way. It is true that Raeburn was delightfully different from anything either of his time or before it. He had the faculty of catching likenesses to a remarkable degree—in Mr. Clouston's opinion, even to a degree probably never surpassed. Hence if the mere likeness required by the ordinary sitter comes without the artist's conscious effort, that artist has a freer mind to devote to those painter-like qualities which he primarily introduces to please himself; in this sense, as his biographer claims, Raeburn may possibly be regarded as a heaven-born portraitist. The value of Mr. Clouston's text is doubled by the nearly fifty accompanying illustrations.

Occasional Papers

This group of essays[2] by the son of Sir Henry Irving is the work of a man who, like his father, has a scholar's knowledge of the play, and whose acting, in the judgment of some good critics, promises to be quite on a level with his father's. These papers are written with a free hand, and in point of style are not impeccable; but they are extremely entertaining, and convey the atmosphere of the stage in an unusual degree. The outline account which Mr. Irving gives of the phases through which the English drama as an acting drama has passed is particularly interesting. The story is told with ample knowledge and with a personal touch. The account of the great actors of the eighteenth century is an addition to our knowledge of this special aspect of that very entertaining period; while what Mr. Irving has to say about actors and the stage generally is commended to those who still maintain the Puritan attitude towards the theater.

A Treasury of French Verse

If any volume could be worthy to stand alongside the "Oxford Book of English Verse," it would probably be Mr. St. John Lucas's "Oxford Book of French Verse." [1] This is paying the latter a high compliment. Not only are the selections chosen with exquisite taste, but the view of French poetry which the editor gives to us in these selections, and also in his illuminating introduction, is one which every student of French literature should take into account. Mr. Lucas agrees with most critics in placing the beginning of French lyric poetry in the twelfth century, when the first poem in his volume was written. Mr. Lucas then takes us through the poetry of the troubadours, and then that of the ballads and rondeaux of the fourteenth century, then to the more vivid and human art of Villon and the other poets of the following century, then to Ronsard and the Hedonists, finding new blood in the poets of Greece and Rome, and then to Corneille, Racine, La Fontaine, up to that protagonist of modern French poetry, Chateaubriand. Of course the nineteenth century receives its just due, as represented by Béranger, Lamartine, Musset, and Hugo, to Leconte de Lisle and Paul Verlaine. It is a pity that Hérédia could not have been included. No living poets are mentioned.

The True Church

The questions at issue between the "catholic" and the "evangelic" concepts of "the true Church" are well handled in this volume.[2] Against the "catholic" contention, that "the Church has been from the beginning a society with a divinely appointed succession of those who are in 'holy orders,'" Professor Dulles holds that "the True Church is the whole flock of Jesus Christ. Any organized church with bounds of inclusion and exclusion is not the flock, but a fold of larger or smaller dimension." In a historical and Scriptural discussion of the opposing views a variety of fictions and sophisms are encountered and punctured. Those who think it worth while to discuss the so-called "apostolic succession" with Anglo-Catholics or Roman Catholics will find enough material here. That controversy loses interest when one finds it bottomed on the trick of a word—"apostle" being no designation of a superior order, but only the

[1] Sir Henry Raeburn. (Art Library Series.) Frederick Warne & Co., New York. $1.25, net.
[2] Occasional Papers: Dramatic and Historical. By H. B. Irving, M.A. Small, Maynard & Co., Boston. $1.50.

[1] The Oxford Book of French Verse. Chosen by St. John Lucas. Oxford University Press (American Branch), New York.
[2] The True Church: A Study. By Allen Macy Dulles, D.D. The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. $1.25, net.

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Greek word for missionary. Professor Dulles holds no brief for any now existing church: "interest in the True Church requires that we be interested in all the churches, not merely in our own." He foresees the unity of the churches in their agreement in work which will "present and represent the Christ who sacrificed himself for man's redemption." This noble conception of sacrificial living for others as the cure of schism, and the unifier of the divided churches, exhibits the essentially priestly function of all faithful and loving souls. In degree as this is fulfilled the exclusive pretensions of a priestly class are nullified. This is the one truth which needs to be more consistently presented in this volume for the full effectiveness of its cogent argument.

A Story of the Life-Savers

"Janet of the Dunes" [1] might be called a romantic study in heredity. Janet is the daughter of a wayward mother, and is brought up by her supposed father, a lighthouse-keeper. She develops bookish tastes, grammatical speech, and other unconventional ways that make her beach-combing neighbors uncomfortable. An artist comes, Janet poses for him, they fall in love—but the blot on the 'scutcheon appears in the person of her real father, a wealthy member of the summer colony. Notwithstanding the stain on the girl's birth, the story ends happily. While some of the conversations and situations fail to ring true, the heroine is a spirited and lovable girl, the surroundings and manners of the life-savers on our coasts are described with the vividness that comes from personal association, and the climax of the story rouses real interest in the reader.

Bible Study

This compact little book,[2] exhibiting the method of Bible teaching employed by an accomplished instructor with pupils having "no helps but their Bibles," is stimulating to all teachers ambitious of thorough work. Many of the questions assume that teachers using the book will be of that kind; *e.g.*, "The difference between the old Hebrew idea of God, held in modified form by the mass of the Jews, and the larger conception discerned by the prophets, grasped by the early church, and accepted to-day?" "The difference between the Christianity of the first Christians at Jerusalem, and the Christianity planted over much of the civilized world at the close of the first century?" The author's phrase, "teaching these questions," suggests, as such questions do, the demand which every really good Bible school now makes for teachers as well equipped as Miss Redfield.

Luther on Christian Education

This fresh volume [1] of the new edition of Luther's works includes his Small Catechism, Large Catechism, exposition of the Commandments, Creed, and Lord's Prayer, a sermon on Holy Baptism, instruction as to Confession, and on the benefits of the Lord's Supper. The pearl of the volume is the Small Catechism, of which Dr. Schaff, in his "History of Creeds," says that it "is truly a great little book, with as many thoughts as words, . . . strong food for a man, and yet simple as a child. It marks an epoch in the history of religious instruction." The editor does not mention that Luther follows the Roman Catholic enumeration of the Commandments (omitting the second as merely an explanation of the first, and dividing the tenth into two); also that the "Three Universal Creeds," as Luther gives them, are not those now usually reckoned such by Church historians.

Peru

Such difficulties do the Andes present that when the Peruvian wishes to go from the western to the eastern border of his country as quickly as possible, he takes a steamer around Cape Horn to Liverpool, then back across the Atlantic and up the Amazon! Here in North America we do not realize what Peru means. We seem to think that it consists of but a strip of land along the western slope of that great mountain range. We have but to glance at the excellent map in Mr. Enock's book [2] to be otherwise convinced; we have but to read Mr. Enock's informative text to be still more convinced, and to feel that the fabulous riches of the Inca days may be brought again to men's eyes, as soon as modern methods of transportation and trade shall have revolutionized Peru.

Mission Studies

This [3] is an excellent exhibition of one of the fundamental lessons of the Bible, especially of the New Testament. Those who are interested in the cultivation of the missionary spirit in the churches will find it a helpful auxiliary to their efforts. It is written for plain people and young people by the President of the Foreign Christian Missionary Society.

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[1] Janet of the Dunes. By Harriet T. Comstock. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $1.50.

[2] A Reasonable Way to Study the Bible: The Acts of the Apostles, the Epistles. By Isabella T. Redfield. Published by the Author, Pittsfield, Massachusetts. 50c.

[1] Luther's Catechetical Writings. By Professor John Nicholas Lenker, D.D. Vol. I. (Second Thousand.) The Luther Press, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

[2] The Andes and the Amazon. By C. Reginald Enock, F.R.S.G. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $5, net.

[3] Where the Book Speaks. By Archibald McLean. The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. $1, net.

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Letters to The Outlook

PRESIDENT PRITCHETT'S PLEA FOR A STRONG NAVY

President Pritchett's justification of President Roosevelt's naval policy is accompanied by a similar plea, in larger type and different diction, in Hearst's American, and by others in the intermediate grades of journalism. A systematic attempt is being made to persuade Congress, which refuses to give even $1,000,000 towards saving our forests, to vote for four new $10,000,000 battle-ships, with accompaniments costing probably $20,000,000 more, in addition to our war budget, estimated, we believe, at $218,000,000 for this year. This is what President Pritchett means by his unexplained expression, a "strong navy." There are some of us who have seen war budgets increase two hundred times during a period when our population has increased only twenty times, who perceive a serious difference between a navy some years ago reasonably strong, and the present one, excessive and already dangerous as an incitement to the increase of military burdens in other nations. We would like to present the following considerations:

(1) Our National defense is needed a thousand times as much against internal enemies of graft, homicide, and criminal recklessness as against external foes. Twice as many are annually murdered in our country as fell on the American side in three years of the Philippine War, though the Filipinos' loss was immense; eighty thousand more persons have been recently killed by accident in four years than were killed on both sides in the four years of the Civil War. The enemies we most need to fight are not to be conquered by bullets, but by ballots, education, and law. We have still six million illiterates, and are paying the average teacher less than a garbage-collector, while a hysterical fear lest we have not enough costly steel constructions to annihilate an unknown, supposititious foe is making us blind to the dangers that are weakening and dishonoring the Republic, and are humbugging us into spending money precisely where it is least needed.

(2) President Pritchett says: "Our international human nature is not likely to be made over again in a century." Justice between nations no more depends on a change of human nature than does justice between States. It is proper organization, not saintliness, that prevents New York and Pennsylvania, or Pisa and Florence, from fighting each other, as the latter used to. A navy's size bears no relation to its "dignity," any more than the number of fire-engines or jails is proportioned to the dignity of a city, or his pistols and burglar alarms to the dignity of a man.

(3) The sole just criterion for the size of a navy is the degree of National danger. Last April President Roosevelt wrote to the National Peace Congress: "We are no longer enlarging our navy. We are simply keeping up its strength. The addition of one battle-ship a year barely enables us to make good the units which become obsolete." In November he asks for four new battle-ships Will some one please explain why? Japan is preparing to lower her military taxation, as reported, $200,000,000 within five years. She is yielding generously to our prejudices about immigration. The Drago-Porter agreement at The Hague has relieved us from any supposed need of a navy to compel South American nations to pay contractual debts to Europeans. The settlement of Central American difficulties, our new treaty with Japan now under consideration, our ability to remove at one stroke all possibility of attack on the Philippines by merely asking the nations to neutralize them as soon as we grant them the independence which Secretary Taft has promised—all these facts, and the new treaty between Russia and England and the latter's pleasanter relations with Germany, show a horizon unmarked by the shadow of a war cloud anywhere. Why, then, this sudden scare and change of policy? No nation was safer and less frightened than we thirty years ago, when our navy was small. To-day we have no enemy in the world; we have had only two and one-half years of foreign war since 1812; we were not then invaded and the two wars were of our own making. No nation could so safely as we lead the world in a gradual reduction of armaments.

(4) President Pritchett tells us that Jesus made no anti-slavery or anti-military crusade, and that we "have made progress just in proportion as we have followed his methods." If he means that mankind should literally imitate Christ's methods, no advance could have been made in science, discovery, or political development. If he means that we should be inspired by Jesus' spirit to deal with present problems as he would have us, then would not his spirit of justice, which has abolished slavery the world over, likewise command us to end the world's worst remnant of injustice—the set-

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tlement of questions of fact and principle by explosives? The motto for men who love justice is, "In time of peace, prepare for peace."

JOHN COLEMAN ADAMS, D.D.
Church of the Redeemer, Hartford.
J. T. SUNDERLAND.
Pastor of Unity Church, Hartford.
ARTHUR DEERIN CALL,
President Connecticut Peace Society.

A FEW DOG STORIES

[From a large number of letters called out by Mr. John Burroughs's article, "The Reasonable but Unreasoning Animals" (The Outlook, December 14, 1907), we have selected a few for publication, in addition to the letters which were published in the issues for January 4, 11, and 18. These all relate to instances of sagacity (or reasoning, if one prefers that word) on the part of dogs.—THE EDITORS.]

I.

Several years ago we had in our family a very well bred foxhound and a particularly well bred pug of the Morrison strain. Max, the hound, was in possession when the pug came, a tiny pup. We named him Briton, and Max smiled on the small importation. In time, Briton, who was independence personified, evidently interested the older dog, and they were good friends. Max allowed Briton great privileges, and followed his lead many times. One day Max found a pig's hoof and proceeded to lap and chew it. It evidently was so toothsome that Briton wanted it—as children say—awfully. Max was on the ground close to the piazza steps. Briton walked about, looked at the hoof with "I want it" written all over his handsome little face, and finally lay down on the piazza floor above Max and his prize. I watched from the window. After a few minutes Briton got up and deliberately walked out the lane toward the highway, never once looking at Max. When a few rods from the piazza, he barked. Max paid no heed, but kept on with his hoof. Briton barked again, twice or three times. Max looked up, but did not rise. Briton went on in the lane a few feet, and barked sharply as if the enemy were upon us. Max looked and concluded to get up. He went out past Briton standing in the lane, looked up and down the road. Meanwhile Briton quietly trotted back, found the much-wanted hoof, lay down and made much of it. Max, failing to find any cause for Briton's barking, returned to his hoof. I expected that he would claim his own and take it by force; instead, when he saw what Briton had, I never saw "fooled" written so plainly on any countenance, human or brute. The pug seemed to be perfectly unconscious of Max's presence. Did Briton reason? Did pug dogs do this way in Holland, and was it a matter of memory handed down, or what?

Dover, New Hampshire. A. W. B.

II.

A friend of mine owned a fine intelligent St. Bernard dog named Prince, whose greatest pleasure was to accompany members of the family in their walks. His happiness when permitted to go along seemed to tax all his powers of expression. Moreover, he considered attendance upon us on such occasions as his exclusive privilege, and promptly chased back the other dog if he attempted to follow. It happened one day that the family were all going out at once, the occasion being, I believe, to see a departing guest off on a boat. Prince watched the preparations with eager eyes. Here was just the sort of an excursion that he liked. But just as the party was about to set out, a rough-looking man drove into the yard and proceeded to throw off a load of wood. Prince sized the stranger up, and apparently decided that he was a suspicious character. An exercise of judgment, was it not? Prince walked into the house, lay down in the middle of the floor, laid his head on his paws, and watched us go, sadly, but without a whimper. Was not this clearly a choice between pleasure and duty, with the sense of duty triumphant? I am sure that in a boy ten years old a similar act, entirely upon his own initiative, would be considered a strong indication of character, giving great promise for his future. J. E. H.

Western Springs, Illinois.

III.

Mr. Burroughs has never met Togo, or he would have changed his philosophy. Togo is an aristocratic Airedale terrier, with a long line of prize-winning ancestry. And yet the lines have fallen to him in hard places, and he has been treated like a common cur. He has been cowed by harsh treatment at the hands of servants and colored stable-boys. His home is about seven blocks from my residence. Some days ago I brought Togo home with me. We have treated him with much kindness and with a consideration that his pedigree demands. To-day I took him back to his home. He entered the stable, looked around, saw some of his enemies, and then disappeared. "We'll chain him when we catch him," said the owner. We looked everywhere for him, but without results. I started home; and to my astonishment,

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just round the corner, on the street next to the stable, I saw Togo, on his haunches, with his eyes fixed on the corner, waiting for me. He saw me, and his beautiful brown eyes filled with tender affection, and, instantly dropping his hangdog appearance, he wagged his tail and followed me. He is now asleep on my study floor. The old, hard life came back to his memory and he said, "No, sir; if I stay here, nothing better than the post awaits me, and if I wait for the parson here, they'll tie me; so I'll go to the corner and wait and go with him to his home; they're good to me there."

W. E. E.

IV.

Did you ever see a dog that has killed sheep? Did you ever hear the expression, "Looks like a sheep-killing dog"? This saying is based on fact. A dog that has been trained that he should not kill sheep shows his guilt, when he has transgressed, by a drooping tail and a shifty eye, much as a man would do who felt guilty and ashamed of himself. We would say of a man, under the same circumstances, that he feels remorse.

I used to have to go three miles for the mail and any little thing we needed from the "store." When I started off, my dog would always start after me, and I would send him back with a word or perhaps a stone. He would turn back with a very dejected air and not offer to follow again; however, when I topped a hill about a mile from home I was always pretty sure to see him sitting at the roadside waiting for me. Was it instinct that told him to go around and meet me so far from home that I would not try to send him back? Of course he did not know that I would not send him back from there, but if a child had done the same thing we would say that it had acted on reason.

Is it instinct that will send a dog to hunt help when his master is hurt, or are all the stories we read of dogs doing that "fakes"? Is it instinct that teaches a dog to scratch on the door when it wants to go in out of the storm? Is it instinct that makes the dog that has been thrashed for chasing rabbits come slinking to your feet the next time one starts when he is close to you, and then run merrily after the next one that gets up when you are some distance away? Is that association of ideas? If it is, it is of rather a complex nature, a nature that would not appeal to the psychologist who was attempting to account for similar actions performed by a man under similar circumstances. Was it instinct that made my old dog Sport uncomplainingly take a thrashing if he had been caught chasing rabbits or "running in" on quail, and yet made him fight savagely if I attempted to thrash him for an offense committed some time before? This dog was of very morose disposition, never barked, never played with the children, and would allow no one to even so much as stroke his head—I once saw him bite a man who tried to do so in spite of my warning—and yet he always came to me when he got burrs in his feet and would stand much pain, without a whimper, when I was trying to pick out a deeply embedded thorn, and never so m c as whimpered or growled when I whipped him for some recent offense. How do you explain it? Instinct? Association?

E. W.

Nevada, Missouri.

V.

I had a little dog who practiced all the dogly virtues. He never tried to get into any chairs or on any couches. Every night he was left asleep in his own basket, and every morning he was found virtuously sleeping in the same place; but there were always dog hairs on the couch. One night, by a simple trick, he was caught on the couch, and his extreme mortification was both pitiful and ludicrous.

Where did he get the idea that the couch was a more comfortable place than his own basket?

Why did he try his first experiment in the night?

Why did he keep off the couch during the day?

Why was he so ashamed when caught?

He had never been whipped or punished in any way.

J. P.

Worcester, Massachusetts.

VI.

If the question "Do animals reason?" still has any general interest, as it certainly has to me, may I ask Mr. John Burroughs why, when the telephone bell rings, "Bobbie" pays no heed, but when the electric bell rings in the basement, he goes to the front door and wags his tail? May not his conduct be expressed in the syllogism: Whenever a particular bell rings, there is some one at the front door, even though the bell rings in the basement; that bell rings, therefore there is some one at the front door, and I will go and give him welcome. Again, when the box of candy is taken out in the evening in the library, "Bobbie" is sure to want his piece. But one piece is not enough, according to his notion, so, to overcome his persistent begging, we put the box away; and when we do that, "Bobbie" goes as far away in a front room as he can, and hides under the bed. Immediately when we take out the box again,

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he comes running into the room. So it seems that he not only reasons himself, but he assumes that we reason, or act upon motive. His reason is this: they have put the candy away, but only to fool me; I will go and hide, and they will surely take it out, because they think I have gone away; but when they take out the candy again, I will come back. He is on the alert, and the slightest touching of the box brings him running back. Again, "Bobbie" does not like his bath, which he always gets on Friday night. He is fond of going into the basement because that is where he gets his meals, and he will always answer to the call to go to the basement except on Friday night, when he will beg his master and his mistress not to allow him to be taken, and will run and hide behind chairs until he receives the peremptory command to go. In respect of these matters, how could a dog have an inherited memory?

But Mr. Burroughs undertakes to prove the absence of reason in a cow, by the illustration of the mother cow calmly lapping the stuffed form of a calf, and when it is opened just as calmly eating the hay inside the form. Does that illustrate anything except that Mr. Burroughs's reasoning is bad, or that he knows nothing of cows? The cow reasons better, at all events, than Mr. Burroughs. Her scent for hay is keen; she does not believe the stuffed thing is a calf, but only an outer covering for hay, and laps it in expectation of getting the hay. Let Mr. Burroughs, if he wishes a true test, put a dead calf before the mother cow, stuffed, if you please, with hay, and then let him see what the cow will do. Every animal knows its own dead. A cow will not lap its dead calf, but will turn away its head and low or moan. M. N. R.

Washington, D. C.

THE "CHRISTMAS STAMP" IN AMERICA

Half a million "bullets in the fight against tuberculosis" sped during two recent weeks over the land in the shape of half a million "Christmas Stamps," issued by the Delaware Red Cross, and sold at one cent apiece, to swell its anti-tuberculosis fund. Readers of The Outlook will remember Jacob Riis's eloquent article in the issue of July 6, 1907, on the Christmas stamp of Denmark. That article, read by a member of the Dalaware Red Cross, suggested a transplanted Christmas stamp, suitable to conditions in America. In Denmark the Government issued the stamp; but this, after a conference of the officers of the Delaware society with the Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Hitchcock, was found to be impracticable in the United States without the action of Congress. The Delaware Red Cross, therefore, acting with the approval of the National Red Cross at Washington, issued its own Christmas stamp, introducing it to the public on December 7, by posters, placards, street-car advertising, and various other picturesque methods. One of the great Philadelphia newspapers, the North American, took up the idea, and the campaign soon included Philadelphia, where the Pennsylvania Red Cross most generously helped it forward. The Delaware committee had printed 150,000 stamps for their own needs, and 100,000 more for distribution by the National Red Cross to any branches which might desire them. This number represented the utmost limit they hoped to sell; but the orders soon became so overwhelming that the presses were kept busy for a week, and the committee was in session practically all day and every day until Christmas. Even after Christmas the run continued to an astonishing extent, and an extra issue, bearing "Happy New Year" in addition, was printed to supply the further demand. Orders, we are told, are still pouring in to the headquarters of the Red Cross in Wilmington, Delaware, coming from correspondents all the way from Florida to Manitoba, inclosing postage stamps or postal orders, and requesting from one to a thousand Christmas stamps in exchange. Expenses have long ago been covered, so that every cent now goes clear to the anti-tuberculosis work in Delaware. The Delaware Red Cross has already arranged to bring a complete tuberculosis exhibit to Wilmington for the week beginning January 8, and to finance the building of a tuberculosis hospital in place of the few wooden shacks, without trained nurses or central building, which now represent anti-tuberculosis work in Delaware. Thus the first beginnings of the Christmas stamp have already brought healing in their train; and the progress of the "stamp which stamps out the White Plague" is likely to be a triumphant one in the future. Jacob Riis, Governor Stuart, of Pennsylvania, and Secretary Taft, have all heartily indorsed it, and a movement for a National Red Cross stamp has begun at Washington.

PRISCILLA LEONARD.

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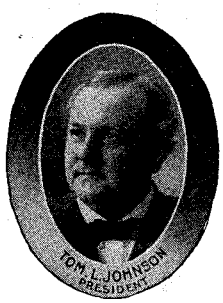

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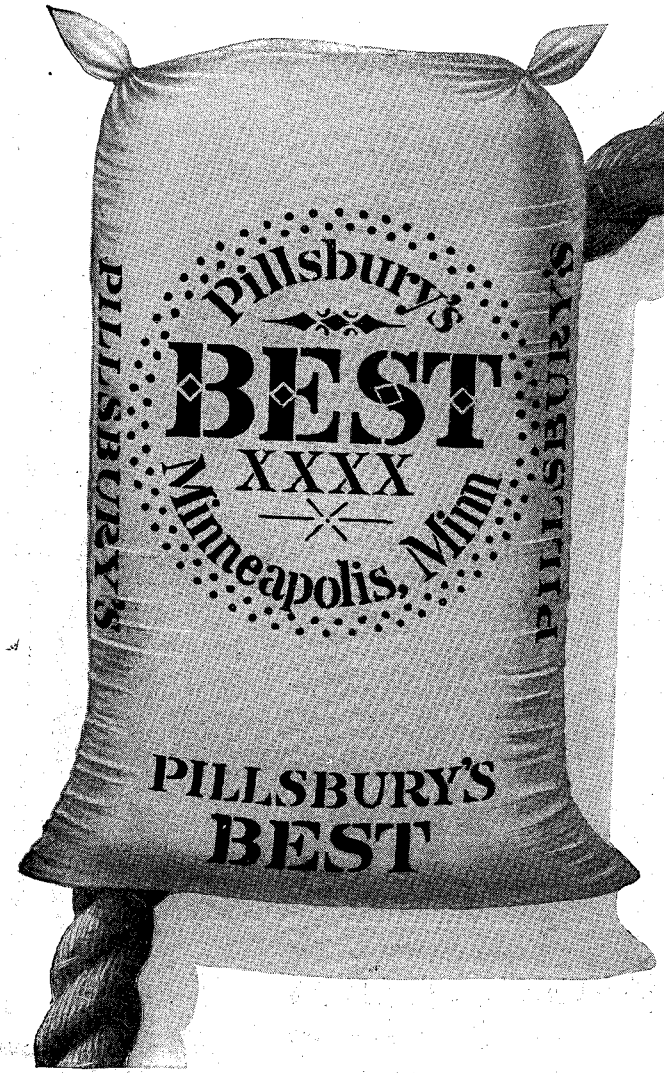

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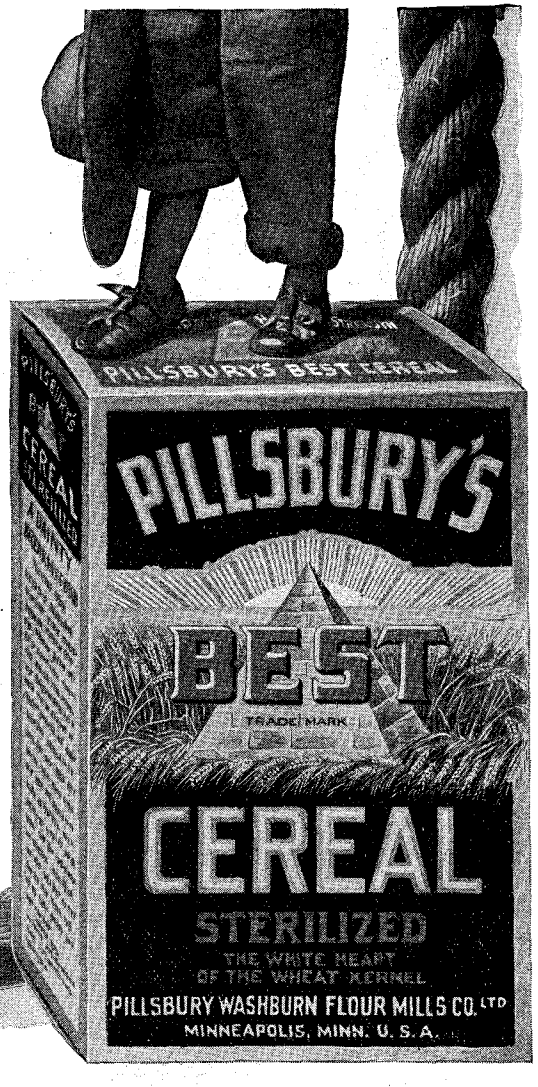

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